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## THE VALUE OF LORD PALMERSTON.

"WE are paying dearly for Palmerston!" is a phrase often repeated within the last few months, and how dearly we are willing to pay for him is proved by the toleration extended at the last moment on almost every occasion, to the mischievous mistakes of the men who surround him, and who bear, officially, the name of his colleagues. That we do pay a high price, a very high price, for our present Prime Minister, is not to be denied; but that he is worth that price is, in most people's opinion, equally certain. He is the man of the hour; all Europe knows and feels it, and at this identical hour, that can be said of no other man in England. Therefore is he worth whatever he may cost us. It is not upon the way in which the country is governed at home, not even upon the administration of our finances, that, at the present moment, hangs the greatness of England—it is upon the attitude she is able to assume abroad. It is not in England that England's power can be estimated, it is in Berlin, in Vienna, in Madrid, in St. Petersburg, but above all in Paris. "Nobody is ever vanquished or victorious in reality," used to say Frederick of Prussia, "but they are so who believe themselves to be so." Now the absolute might of England has not been fairly tested since the days of "the Duke," yet it is believed in all over the world, and to the "rest of the world," it is represented by, embodied in Lord Palmerston. He it is to whom the thoughts of every Sovereign and every Prime Minister in Europe instantaneously revert upon every occurrence of the slightest importance. There is, no doubt, a frequently recurring fear of what Louis Napoleon may suddenly do; but there is a ceaseless preoccupation of what Palmerston thinks. "Qu'en pensera Palmerston?" is, we may safely affirm, the second question every European ruler asks of himself *à propos* to the measures taken by his own advisers in his own dominions.

Whenever any statesman attains to this degree of importance he becomes one of the guiding powers of the world, and he is priceless to the nation possessing him. He keeps the curiosity of the world employed, and compels its unfailing interest. Hopes, fears, and speculations without end, grow to centre in him, and men easily learn to pin their faith upon him, for they do not care to believe fallible the man who so enchains their attention, and who is thus predominant. "There is no impossibility if Palmerston would . . ." is the notion lying at the bottom of the policy of every single Cabinet in Europe; and "si Palmerston voulait!" is the mental ejaculation of those who sway the destinies of the most conflicting States. Most countries have, at one time or another, boasted one or more of these preponderant spirits, whose mission it seems to be to absorb the notice of other nations. France has had several who have exercised this influence over the political mind of their age. Richelieu deserved it, Mazarin enjoyed it; for a moment it was an attribute of Louis Philippe, and for a moment, also, imperfectly of Prince Metternich. In the younger Pitt it was incarnate till the hour of his death; and so long as he yet lived all the din of Napoleon's battles would not have sufficed to distract the world's attention from what was passing in the great English Minister's mind.

People have wondered at glorious deeds, and half deified those who achieved military glory; but with military glory the kind of predominance we speak of never was united. No great soldier ever wielded it. It depends far less than might be supposed upon what

man does, it depends almost exclusively upon what he is. "Where the will to lead is deficient," says a great French writer, "there success can only be hoped for through a miracle." The inverse of the proposition is also true, and where the "will to lead" exists, success is all but an inevitable consequence. Here lies the secret of the whole: it all hangs upon a mysterious faith in the luck of some one individual. We say mysterious, because it is often given to the largest possible amount without practical proof that it is deserved, and in many cases it is not even shaken by a practical failure. In the instance of Pitt this determined "will to lead" was submitted to long before it had afforded any evidence of its power. In the present case, too, nothing practically proves that Lord Palmerston would carry England through a great crisis, and would be successful in restoring her to her supremacy of 1814-15. Nothing proves this; but somehow or other every body believes it—knows it would be so. Palmerston has the "will to lead," therefore is there faith in his success. He possesses the "governing power," and whoever does really possess it, governs.

This is why, whatever the price we pay for our present Prime Minister, it is not too high a one. In the eyes of foreigners he is England itself, and therefore (in the present position of affairs) invaluable, and to be preserved even at the cost of Gladstone's mischievous financial combinations; and all the more to be set store by that his mind is so essentially, so utterly antagonistic to the Jesuitical, hair-splitting, un-English mind of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

How typically English Palmerston is, can, perhaps, scarcely be appreciated by us in England; it is the reflection of him in the European mind that shows his full worth. The value of Pitt lay in the importance Europe gave him. His was the one mind with which it was felt the first Napoleon could not tamper. And so with Palmerston, his is felt to be the one will which the second Napoleon will not bend. What inflexible pride was to Pitt, indomitable pluck is to Palmerston. Europe does not understand the word, but she recognizes the thing, hails it, and bows to it. She feels there is in a certain spot of this earth of ours, a man who, should a struggle arise with France, will not give in, who, whatever happens, will not yield. That wilful "Albion" has got a wilful Minister, and Europe finds repose and satisfaction in the fact. She does not love either of the two one bit the better, but both are for ever uppermost in her thoughts.

Public opinion abroad invests Lord Palmerston with no austere glories, such as she delights to throw retrospectively round the name of Pitt; but she relies on him all the same, and that is enough. She has learnt to regard the one as she did the other,—as the obstacle, *par excellence*—as the obstacle insuperable to French ambition. Europe is beginning to see clearly both into the character of Louis Napoleon and into that of Lord Palmerston, and it is precisely with the character of both these men that she feels she has to do; with their character, not with their deeds, or even with their mere capacity. She has learned (much to Lord Palmerston's credit) that the French Emperor can outwit him; but she feels that for having taken in a friend the French Emperor has given himself a master. Europe has better trusted Palmerston since the gross deception practised upon him about the Nice and Savoy annexation than she ever trusted him before; and from the hour when it was made plain to her that he was both deceived and undeceived, she has virtually recognized in him the leader of the world's foreign policy. Alas! for Lord John, as ostensible





Foreign Secretary! public opinion abroad only attaches import to his words as they are supposed to express the sentiments of his predominant colleague, and "*Qu'en pensera Lord John!*" was never yet heard to issue from the lips of any potentate or any Minister in the whole universe!

In the life of every man who has more than once been Minister, it is always to some one particular Ministry that may be traced his highest renown. Lord Palmerston's preponderance in Europe is of recent date, for, whatever his power hitherto, and he has long wielded power, he has only achieved his dictatorship in foreign policy within the last year. If it is a proud eminence to have scaled, it entails a tremendous responsibility. Whilst admitting the firm purpose, the strong will, the real power in one of the two antagonists, public opinion throughout the world has also begun to learn what are the contrary characteristics of the other, and to exaggerate, perhaps, even the extent of what England's initiative ought to secure. There is a tendency throughout the world to hold England's Prime Minister responsible for what France's ruler may do or leave undone. We do not mean to enter into a discussion now upon what are the duties this imposes on the head of the Cabinet, but we may remark that such excess of responsibility cast upon any nation serves to prove the predominant importance attributed to the statesman who, for the time being, speaks in her name.

Do we, or do we not, "pay too dearly" for our Premier? That was the point whence we started, and our deliberate conviction is that we do not!

#### THE FATE OF VIRGINIA.

THE summer wears on, but the hostile armies of the confederated and United States of America strike no decisive or even formidable blow. The South knows the exact number of men that have responded to the call of President Lincoln; or that are marshalled under the ancient "star spangled" banner unfurled by General Scott; but the North is in ignorance of the real strength of the South, and does not know, within fifty thousand, how many men are enrolled under that newer banner which has been hoisted by President Davis. The press of the South is discreet; and betrays no military or social secrets, the revelation of which would disconcert plans, or give advantage to the enemy. The press of the North blurts out everything, heedless of consequences; and the *New York Herald*, and all the other similarly audacious and mendacious prints, which are smitten with furious Anglo-phobia, not only continue to howl and curse against Great Britain—a certain sign of weakness—but begin anxiously to calculate the cost of the war, and the chances of a successful issue. In proportion as it becomes evident that the final subjugation of the South is impossible, or, if possible, that it can only be achieved by the destruction of the public liberty of both sections of the Republic—the maintenance of a huge standing army, and the creation of a load of public debt—the ill-will of Northern politicians, whether native American or Irish, desires something nearer than England to fasten itself on, and fixes upon Virginia. It is quite clear, from all the signs of opinion, and from the tone of public feeling in Washington, as well as in New York, that if it be found utterly impracticable to carry the war into the extreme South, and to reduce the cotton and sugar producing states to obedience, the entire energy of the North will be concentrated against Virginia, which will be made to pay the full penalty of, and endure all the horrors and atrocities of, the war.

"If we cannot have Louisiana, Alabama, and the Carolinas, let us at all events have Virginia. Let us confiscate the estates and property of every rebel within its boundaries, and parcel them out among the soldiers of General Scott. Let us hang or shoot every man taken in arms, or against whom any complicity or sympathy with the rebellion can be proved. Let us, if need be, lay waste the whole country with fire and sword;—but have Virginia we must and shall." Such is the cry that was first raised in the private talk of the camp and the bar-room a few weeks ago, but which has now found its way into the public arena, and is avowed and strengthened by the voices and pens of the leaders of opinion. Though it is a policy of vengeance, it is, with the exception of its ferocity, one of reason, and is furthermore remarkable as a manifestation of the growing conviction of the Unionists that their absolute triumph over the South is impossible.

The "Old Dominion," that beautiful country of Virginia, larger and more fertile than England, will have to bear the burthen of a war that its statesmen for two generations have done so much to provoke. The South, guarded by distance, by climate, by swamps, and by the terrible yellow fever, may defy, with its strong purpose, all the levies that the North can bring against it; but it cannot ultimately save Virginia, if the North have determined on the reannexation of that State as a necessary preliminary to all compromise. How long the belligerents may protract the unnatural and unnecessary war, it is impossible for any one in America, or out of it, to predict; but that a compromise will, sooner or later, be effected, is becoming as obvious to Americans as it has long been to Europeans.

Slavery does not pay in Virginia. The land, especially in its eastern portions, where there has been no immigration of the sturdy men of New England, is relapsing into wilderness, while the climate is so mild and genial, as to allow of the labour of white men as freely and as harmlessly as in Lombardy or Piedmont. Add to this, that the possession of the country is strategically and politically necessary to the Northern half of the Republic, and there will be abundance of reason to convince the world that the gentlemen of Virginia, the aristocratic "F. F. V.'s," as they were once proud to call themselves, must, if they wish to preserve life and fortune, make friends with the North; or, if that be out of the question, must withdraw from the homes of their childhood and the graves of their fathers—like the Red Indians before them, and make new homes for themselves and their children in that tempting Mexico, which, sooner or later, the Southern Confederacy, when freed from war with the North, will attack and absorb.

The opinions expressed in this Journal at the time when Secession first became a fact, and which we have ever since repeated, that it would be for the benefit alike of North and South, if they would shake hands and part, are beginning to find an echo in the Northern press. "It is not strange," says the *New York Daily News*, of the 5th ultimo, "that European powers should treat what the North calls 'Jeff. Davis's Rebellion,' as a very formidable movement, when they are shown the vast extent of country that is declared to be in a state of 'secession,' or separation. The map of the eleven Confederate States covers more territory than England, France, Austria, Italy, Prussia, and Hanover combined (733,000 square miles). They have a population of six millions of whites and three and a half millions of slaves. A 'rebellion' of such magnitude has never before occurred in the history of the world, and in its results are involved, not only the fate of men, but of empires. These Confederate States believe that it would promote their interest and happiness to separate from the Northern States. Why not let them try the experiment? The North professes to hate the institution of slavery, and bitterly complains of its implication in the 'great national enormity.' Why not let the North separate, and wash its hands at once of all complicity in the 'damning sin?'"

We may well reiterate the inquiry. It will come to that issue in the long run, when the belligerents shall have inflicted upon each other an amount of injury that fifty years of peace and prosperity will be unable to efface or repay. The North might even now consider that if it had been, five or six years ago, half as much in earnest in deprecation of slavery as it either is or affects to be at the present time, it might have given freedom to all the slaves in Virginia, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, and the district of Columbia,—in fact within all the region where slavery does not pay, at a less cost in money, than one month's continuance of the war; a proceeding which would have deprived the war, if it had still broken out, of much of its complication and bitterness. And unhappy Virginia, free of the curse of slavery, to which it has adhered rather from conservatism than from any considerations of profit, would have been spared all the horrors that are about to be poured upon her devoted head, and all the bloodshed that will run upon her soil like water.

#### THE POPEDOM AND THE MARCH OF EVENTS.

PPIO NONO has at last exhausted the resources of his position. He has left nothing undone, or rather untried, save the resignation of his crown and the patrimony of St. Peter. He has thrown Lamoricière into the shade, and disgusted the boys of Tipperary, and outlived the hopes of Francis II., and extracted Peter's pence to the last penny, and turned ill three times in a year without exciting compassion, and appealed to all the saints, and threatened to make Westminster his Rome and Cardinal Wiseman his successor, and all without obtaining one atom of comfort or prospect of a nearer solution of his increasing difficulties. Who would not pity the sorrows of a poor old man? When we look upon the broken-down condition of the Pope, the victorious insolence of his enemies, the pitiful and helpless exertions of his friends, and the very "stars in their courses" fighting against him, it is impossible not to remember and apply to him the sublime words of the ancient seer, "How art thou fallen from heaven, O Lucifer, son of the morning, how art thou cut down to the ground which did weaken the nations!" The contrast between Hildebrand, in the pride of his pontifical power, or Gregory IX., "exalting his throne above the stars," and Pius IX., old and sick, and stripped of his dominions, and appealing for bread and shelter, is so vivid, that the extremest Protestant must at times be tempted to shed a tear, if not give a penny to the fund for collecting Peter's pence.

The march of events so long dreaded in the Vatican, and so sagaciously accepted as the highest philosophy in the Tuilleries, has reached the Roman capital and has begun to thunder at the gates of St. Peter. Once Rome was so little afraid of the troops of Hannibal, that her auctioneers put up to auction the very fields on which the Carthaginian was encamped. But the cardinals do not attempt thus to deal with the ground



covered by the legions of Victor Emmanuel. They are willing to curse or caress, excommunicate or absolve him, if he will let them alone, but nothing can mitigate their hatred of him or their horror of his pretensions, or persuade them that they and their craft are not in jeopardy. Like the contents of Cotton's wharf, the very elements which they have stored up, many of them the plunder of the widow and the orphan, and the spoils of befooled and outwitted kings, have increased the conflagration which gathers round the Papacy, and add to the danger if they do not ensure the destruction of every one who attempts to postpone the doom or to rescue the person of the unhappy old priest. The last appeal for deliverance has been addressed to the "great Catholic powers,"—great in name only,—Austria and Spain, and the last of the series in all likelihood. If we were in possession of this appeal we should, doubtless, find in it every motive for succour and support which can be drawn from heaven, earth, and hell, piety and policy, proffered indulgences, historic reminiscences and urgent entreaties, such as a pope in *extremis* can make use of in order to rally round him the last unspent energies of these retreats of mediæval superstition. But this missive has not been made public. Its substance, however, may be gathered from the masterly description of Thouvenel. Austria and Spain, recognizing in the master of the legions of Europe their superior, have appealed to that "eldest son" of the Holy Father for support in a combined and confederate effort to repel from Rome the advancing tides of freedom, and to perpetuate that See in all the insulation of its ancient and inveterate barbarism. They are ready to confront the age, to crush the young freedom of Italy, and to tread out every spark of life and hope in ardent and enthusiastic souls, if they can only hope to preserve the Papacy. They entreat Napoleon to head the new crusade. They adjure him by all that is sacred to help them to save the vicar of Christ from destruction in that seething sea of trouble in which he sinks daily.

It has been the boast and glory of the champions of Rome that the comforts and the influences of their faith are beyond the domain of secular powers, and that the priest's peculiar realm, the conscience, cannot be touched by the mightiest sceptre. But according to the opinion of the "great Catholic Powers," the peace of consciences is greatly disturbed, not by the Pope changing his creed, but by his losing his property; and it depends on the secular arm whether the piety of the faithful shall flourish or expire. Our Roman Catholic friends need not talk of an Act of Parliament Church in England as long as they have a Sword of Napoleon Church at Rome.

We regret one part of the Emperor's policy recently indicated. He seems desirous that the Pope should be maintained on the throne of his predecessors at Rome. This is the Gordian knot he cannot untie, and will not cut. It is, nevertheless, the plague-spot of Italy, and the infectious sore of Europe. As long as it exists, the kingdom of Italy cannot be consolidated, and the peace of Europe will be precarious. Rome must have back all it has lost, or it will plot to regain it. Napoleon may rely on it that he must either restore the Papacy to its former tyranny and misrule, or accept that chronic discontent and distrust which weakens his own throne, and leaves openings of hope and prospects of return to the expelled tyrants who wait on the chapter of accidents. It is hopeless to expect to reconcile "the populations of the Roman States" to the Pope or to his throne. Every step that has been taken to attach the Italians to the Papacy has lessened their respect for France, and increased their hatred of the Pope. The French "occupation of Rome provides only for the necessities of the present." The Emperor adjourns the explosion for the present—he does not exhaust its elements. He represses the outbreak of evils which he may end in one day. He appears meanwhile to every Roman as a coercive imperial policeman—at the head of troops that are mere *sbirri*. He goes too far to satisfy the people, and not nearly far enough to satisfy the priests. He is either vacillating and unsettled in his policy, or he is holding fast his tenure of Rome in order to induce Ricasoli to come to terms about ceding Sardinia as his wages for withdrawing his soldiers from Rome, and allowing the people to deal with Antonelli and his master according to their merits.

Meanwhile, it is impossible to doubt that if Pio Nono be not the last of the Popes, he is the last of that powerful succession in which the Gregorys played so conspicuous a part. There is not a crowned head in Europe that does not pity him or laugh at him. His fears as a priest have utterly unnerved his hand as a ruler, and have left him the prey of conflicting counsels and pitiable appeals. Were he worthy of his fierce predecessors who launched the thunders of the Vatican in other times, he would save his dynasty if not his office by some bold and sudden stroke, and go down like a ship in full sail at sea, amid the respectful farewells of those that thank high heaven for their deliverance. Were he to perish amid the full roll of the thunders he has hurled at the heads of his enemies, and amid the splendour of the lightnings he has wakened from their ancient lair, the grandeur of this last act of the Papal drama would glorify much of the shame, and contempt, and cowardice, and humiliation, which have hung like thick clouds above the later Papacy. His friends would, at least, cease to be ashamed of him. His enemies would be awed if not converted.

The world would marvel, and a system so ancient—so memorable for the greatness of its crimes and the awful sanctions in which they had their birth—so mighty in its influence over thrones, and principalities, and powers, would go out with something of the majesty with which it used to reign.

But this does not appear to be the probable nature of its end. Pio Nono dies by inches, mumbling curses and threats and anathemas, without dignity as without self-respect, and *Requiescat in pace* is the prayer of Christendom. How Roman Catholics will get on without a Pope is their own affair. They cannot be worse than they are with one. But that Rome will soon cease to be the seat or centre of the Papacy is what it needs no prophet to foretell.

A new era has begun. Light has broken on the benighted, and the corruptions of the Romish faith are discovered by the surviving light of the ancient religion which they have not been able to extinguish.

#### RESURRECTION OF OPINION IN FRANCE.

THERE is a movement going on at this present time in France, which the public opinion of no European country should leave unnoticed. Above all we must not leave it unnoticed, for on what goes on in France will hang much of what France will be driven to attempt out of doors. Self-development is not in the genius of the French race; nor does it lie within the capacities of a nation deprived of an aristocracy, and weakened by the infinitesimal subdivision of landed property; but where there is no adequate employment for national life at home, it will seek employment abroad, and France is still possessed of a certain amount of vitality.

What France *does*, therefore, depends considerably upon what France *is*. Now, France *is* discontented. This is a truth, a *fact*; not a relative truth, born of the desire of a party, not a fiction, an imagination, a dream, but a positive, tangible fact—a *living truth*, whence other facts will spring, and which will beget events. If we want to know what the effect of a blow has been, we do not look to him who gave, but to him who received it; if we are curious to know what its force was, we must see what *he* felt it to be on whom it fell. If we desire to have a just idea of the blow dealt by the Duc d'Aumale's pamphlet on the body of the French Empire, we can only do so by observing what the latter thought of its weight. At the expiration of six months, M. de Persigny's ever-increasing rage will teach us all that we want to learn. The blow had been so severe, and had *told* so fearfully that, at the end of six weeks, the injury sustained was found to be more serious than was at first supposed; and, as is often the case in such matters, great internal mischief was discovered to have ensued.

The hateful pamphlet was everywhere. It was above all, there, where it could not be seized, because it would have been too unwise to regard it as dangerous, yet where it was no longer without danger that it should be. It was amongst the officers of the army, and amongst the families of those who are paid highly for serving the Emperor. The sons and nephews of senators and even of *prefets* and *sous-prefets* possessed the fatal pages, devoured them, lent them, spoke of them openly, and went the length of saying aloud, and amidst unsafe hearers—that they were true! True! yes! there was the "rub." It was the truth of the pamphlet that made it so formidable. At any time it would have been true, but it might not have been formidable; it was formidable because its truth was universally admitted. It was uttered at the right moment and received as truth. Now, the grandest proof of truth's living strength being its fruitfulness, the effect of the pamphlet grew worse with time instead of better, and the various forms of the harm it had done to imperialism became visible on every side. Well, indeed, might M. de Persigny speak in despair of the helplessness, for his purposes, of "the law;" of the readiness with which what he termed the "fissures of the law" lent access to principles endangering what it suited him to call the "institutions" of the State! Of course law was helpless, as law is of its essential nature always helpless, against a truth, recognized as such by public opinion. To *law* the empire could have no recourse, for it knew public opinion to be against it; it was its prime confession of weakness that it had to appeal to what was not law, and that in order to entertain a hope of being strong it was compelled to resort to the declaration that it was about to be *lawless*.

At the distance of not quite three months, the Duc de Broglie's book has followed upon the Duc d'Aumale's pamphlet—less the consequence of the latter than of the impression the latter produced upon those whom it attacked. The evident weight of the blow dealt by the exiled Prince, the extent of the injuries inflicted, taught watchful lookers on a mighty lesson. M. de Persigny may thank himself for the existence of the Duc de Broglie's book; the Minister's ill-advised confession of angry weakness proved the opportunity of further attack. M. de Persigny had taken the trouble to register the fact of there being a "demand" for political truth. M. de Broglie was too good an economist not to furnish the "supply." He wrote his book which, *unpublished*, has so shaken the columns of the Imperial Temple, that the High Priests ran about in confusion, clamouring for the annihila-



tion of a document never intended to be made public! And what said this terrible book! Truth—more truth—truth of the same kind that the Duc d'Aumale had said, and that the panic of the Government had openly recognized, as so fatal to themselves, and so congenial to the public! It said some of those things which may be long before they are uttered for the first time, but which, *when once they are uttered*, it is too late to controvert. M. de Broglie, in his famous book, says that the empire cannot endure long; that it is in opposition to the liberal instincts of the enlightened classes, and to the *traditions, feelings, and interests, of the large majority of Frenchmen*! It is the very first time this has been said—do not let us forget it. It is said by the calmest, most impartial, least impetuous man, perhaps, in all France; it is said because there was an opportunity of saying it, because public opinion was ripe for listening to it; and that there was this opportunity, that this ripeness in public opinion was attained, the attitude of the Government, from first to last, incontrovertibly proves.

But such being the case, does it teach us nothing? The avowed opportunity of these truths to-day, which but yesterday would have been inopportune—has that no lesson for our statesmen? France is discontented. It is desirable, therefore, we must suppose, for those who govern France, that that discontent should cease, or that it should at all events be diverted from its present channel. It is very important to us to mark well one of the Duc de Broglie's assertions—that, namely, which represents the empire as in opposition now to the traditions, feelings, and interests of the majority of the nation. As to its having been opposed to the “liberal instincts of the enlightened classes,” that it has been ever since the *coup d'état*, and that is of comparatively small consequence. France may not only bear, but may actually like a despotism, which is only distasteful to the “enlightened classes;” but, unluckily for despotism of all kinds, it is not a form of government which can long remain distasteful to the enlightened classes only; for the circumstance of its being thus distasteful, implies so terrible a vice of origin, that it is impossible other vices of detail should not be engendered by it, and by these subsequent vices is provoked, in due time, the hostility of other than the “enlightened classes” only. This is what has happened to the second empire. Louis Napoleon was a despot, and under the notion of “society” having to be “saved,” the idea of despotism in the abstract was pleasing to the French mind. But Louis Napoleon was not French. In his looks, manners, speech, habits, train of thought, and modes of action—nothing was French. This passed unnoticed at the time, for France herself was not French. She was so thoroughly, hopelessly, abjectly frightened, that she had lost all power of being anything else. “*Elle est toute entière à sa peur*,” as M. Molé said of her in 1848. The perpetrator of the crime of the *coup d'état* was not French—nothing can be truer—but neither was the France French, upon whom the crime was perpetrated. She had really and truly forgotten all about herself—“*Elle était tout entière à sa peur*.”

When France, whose intense fear had been artfully excited and kept up, was told that she was perfectly safe, and would be surely “protected,” the reaction was immediate—she fainted! While the swoon of exhaustion endured, the Government had an easy game. But a few fitful movements betrayed, at the end of a few years, that life was not extinct. Then France was amused with short wars, cheap victories, royal visits, brilliant alliances, and peace congresses, in which Paris was officially entitled the “capital of the whole world.” But France grew restless, and gave signs of positive reawakening, and then the arm that had saved held her down, and he who had “protected” oppressed. What now was to be done? Health was evidently returning, and strength; but was the patient to go on being a patient? and was she likely to believe still in the “deliverer,” or was it to a master that she was to be forced to submit? The question is not answered yet; but in the efforts for freedom which she has now for some months been making, France has learned anew to recognize herself. France is now trying to exchange her couchant attitude for a more dignified one. She has not yet risen; she may never be able to do so; but whenever she does rise, she will be herself and none other. France is French, and the Emperor is not a whit more French than he was at the moment of the *coup d'état*. There is the real knot of the question—there lies the real difficulty; and therefore is the time come for a man like the Duc de Broglie to say that the empire cannot endure, because it is in opposition to the traditions, feelings, and interests of Frenchmen. France would readily forgive Louis Napoleon for being a despot; but he must be *her* despot. He must neither be an Italian, nor a Dutch, nor a Spanish, nor an Oriental despot. He must be a French despot, and do his work of despotism *à la Française*.

This is beginning to be proved; and to this fact, of the return of France to French traditions and feelings, we earnestly invite the utmost attention. Now, in this situation, what *can* the Emperor do?

Three things are possible: the Emperor may give France genuine, *bona fide* liberty, but then he must govern her Frenchly (if we may be allowed to coin such a word); this may probably lead ultimately to war.

He may, on the contrary, deprive her more and more of liberty,

and resolutely keep her down: this may lead one day to insurrection. He may once more so charm and seduce her with external enterprise, that she shall forget to struggle for any more freedom at home; but this is war.

Out of these three courses it is hard to see what road lies open before him; surely either is so full of eventual evil, that it behoves us to watch every step that is taken, in whichever direction. Surely we ought not to treat lightly this re-assertion of herself by France—this return to French policy, French traditions, French passions, French vanities, French aims?

If the transformation of the Mediterranean into a French lake, for instance, were a price at which France's favours were for some years to be purchased, what should hinder the price from being paid? The island of Sardinia “annexed” would give the Mediterranean over to France, and Louis Napoleon, in spite of his recent promises, may not always be able to withstand the temptation. As her vassal, France will graciously recognize and greet Italy, but as nothing else. On the condition that Italy shall serve her purposes, France will forgive Italy the “trouble” she has caused her, forgive Louis Napoleon for having “meddled in Italian affairs,” and forget that she accuses him of having been driven into the whole complication at Orsini's bidding. Under no other condition will she—if she succeeds in becoming thoroughly French—forgive or forget either.

#### ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM.

MR. COBDEN finds great fault with our administrative institutions. He denounces in unmeasured terms the extravagance, the unbusinesslike habits, and the inefficiency of the Admiralty; he falls heavily on the Horse Guards; and is not very tender towards anything else which Englishmen do in the public offices of the nation. He carries in his mind the ideal of a grand Manchester firm, extending its operations over the whole globe, clothing the natives of America, China, and Australia, spreading blessings around, reaping enormous profits, and pursuing its career with method, regularity, and administrative ability. With this energy and success he contrasts the bungling and cumbersome appliances, the old-fashioned ways, the tediousness, want of intelligence, and perverse dislike of learning how to do better, the waste of time and resources which characterize officials, who, of all things, hate most to have to “go a-head.” The contrast is neither flattering to our pride as a nation, nor soothing to our feelings as tax-payers. We pay enormously, and get bad work for our money. We plume ourselves on being the most practical people on earth; we are vastly proud of our trade, of the energy which it displays, and the great skill by which alone its immense results can be accomplished. If there is one feeling which is deep in John Bull's mind, it is the belief that he manages things better than anybody else; when abroad he thinks with complacency of his better roads and better coaches, his finer dogs and horses and stronger guns, his daring seamen and brave soldiers, the goodness and solidity of English wares. Half of the offence which Englishmen create abroad arises from the peeping out of this feeling of superiority, the intimations which are perpetually escaping from them how much better things are managed in England, how much better we know how to live, how incomparably more glorious a country Old England is to pass one's days in than any other land in the whole world. But when we get back to England, and, forgetting foreigners, think only of the wastefulness of our government, a strange revulsion of feeling creeps over our minds.

The picture is not agreeable to contemplate. We see fine shops, and can buy the best workmanship, if we have but money; we can get splendid parks laid out, and magnificent establishments of hunters and hounds. But if our business sends us to one of the offices of the Government, vexation and humiliation begin: we are bandied about from office to office; we cannot find the right man, or the right intelligence. The man with understanding has not the power to decide, probably not even to suggest; and the man with power lacks the sense to discuss what ought to be done, and to be zealous to do it. When we turn to Parliament, instead of that pleasant self-laudation which accompanied us abroad, we encounter nothing but complaint, dissatisfaction, and remonstrance. We never hear praise of Government work as having been done as Englishmen ought to do it. Attack and recrimination, a never-ending round of excuses for failures or imperfection, are the regular and familiar routine in the House of Commons. The main staple of every Government speech on administrative matters, whatever political party may be in power, is composed of explanations and reasons why the work ordered by Parliament has not been successfully executed, and why difficulties of detail have made the public officers miss that excellence, which we fondly believe to be ours of right, and which we see so constantly attained in private establishments. The evil has gone on increasing, in spite of the strong remedy applied to the House of Commons by the Reform Bill of 1832; and of the lively hopes then formed that the substitution of practical men for placemen, and the infusion into the House of a large mass of merchants, mill-owners, and successful traders, would bring the management of the public business to something like a level with that practical and commercial success which is the glory of England and the astonishment and envy of Europe. These hopes have been dashed to the ground; official blundering has become worse than ever; in the Crimean war the helplessness of the War-office brought the blush of shame to the cheek of every Englishman, whilst unheard-of waste of human life and hard-earned money was the penalty which the nation had to pay for the incompetency of its Government.

We all remember the uproar which ran through the whole country when the tale of Crimean disasters, inflicted, not by the sword of the enemy, but by the inefficiency of English administrators, had carried desolation into so many English homes. Committees of inquiry in Parliament, associations of administrative reform out of doors, remonstrances of an indignant press, every conceivable machinery of the public life of the nation, were concentrated on the unhappy delinquents; and, if wrath and noise could have worked a cure, England must have arrived at a management of her public



affairs worthy in some degree of the eminence which her sons had individually achieved.

The improvement was only skin-deep. After incredible efforts, just as the war was ending, our army began to be in an efficient condition, after the usual English cost of loss of life and reputation had been incurred. The malady was not to be cured by an outcry, however warm and loud. Indignation at results is not the suggestion of a remedy. It may compel the delinquents to think about discovering the cure; but, if intelligence is wanting, it will not be found. In truth, the cause of our inefficiency as political administrators is too deeply seated, it has its roots too closely intermixed with our constitution to be removed by noise or tumultuous efforts. The gun-boats which public clamour had extorted turned out to be rotten.

If, as many believe, the French have got ahead of us in the building of invulnerable ships, it is a disgrace to the nation which possesses the first seamen and first iron-masters in the world. It is certain that our soldiers perish under our very eyes, crushed by the weight of bear-skins, which all England is not strong enough to wrench from the folly and obstinacy of the Horse-Guards-Well, therefore, may Mr. Cobden quote Mr. Gladstone:—"He [Mr. Gladstone] had no hesitation in saying that this and other circumstances of a like kind were entirely owing to the lamentable and deplorable state of our whole arrangements with regard to the management of our public works. Vacillation, uncertainty, costliness, extravagance, meanness, and all the conflicting vices that could be enumerated, were united in our present system. There was a total want of authority to direct and guide. When there was anything to be done, they had to go from department to department, from the Executive to the House of Commons, from the House of Commons to a Committee, from a Committee to a Commission, and from a Commission to a Committee,—so that years passed away, the public were disappointed, and the money of the country was wasted. He believed that such were the evils of the system, that nothing short of a revolutionary reform would ever be sufficient to rectify it."

But what sort of revolutionary reform? for there's the rub. Tell the country what is the remedy, and the country, we are certain, will take it. The people would not stop short of revolution, if only it could be made to see what revolution would do, how it would act as a medicine, what precise effects might be expected from it. England has already tried revolution, and found great good to come of it; but then it saw beforehand that the work which revolution would produce was precisely an efficient cure. Revolution got rid of a tyrannical and incurable dynasty; it put a better one on the throne, and the free constitution of the country obtained a security which it had never before enjoyed. So we ask, what is the revolution hinted at by Mr. Gladstone? what is his cure? He can scarcely mean the hanging of somebody, for that is only a purifying, not a healing process; and, besides, it might bring the danger too close home, for he might be asked whether he might not have remedied the evil if he had chosen to refuse to take office on any other terms than the liberty to carry out a thorough administrative reform. We fear, therefore, that we shall get from Mr. Gladstone only a description of the mischief; he is unable, we suspect, to tell us either its real cause or its most likely remedy.

Neither will Mr. Cobden, though he has stated things in his speech which, if followed out, might have revealed to him the seat of the English malady. "France," says he, "has but one Minister of Marine—not a board like ours, consisting of gentlemen upon whom it would puzzle a detective police-officer to fix any responsibility. But France, with one Minister of Marine, and the Emperor, were in concert; and they said, 'Line of battle ships of wood and sails will be useless in future, we must cease building them.' And they ceased building them." The whole matter lies here, though, manifestly, it is not understood by Mr. Cobden. Absence of direct personal responsibility is, beyond doubt, the real English evil; but its cause is not the existence of a board instead of a single Minister. It is of a far more general nature. The Ministry of War, the Horse-Guards, the Board of Works, are all ruled by a single chief, and with scarcely more creditable results than the Admiralty.

The true cause of the absence of responsibility in England is the want of a master to whom the public servants are accountable. Mr. Cobden accurately describes the French process. The Emperor wants an efficient navy; it is his own direct affair; the advantages of a well, and the losses of an ill-managed navy fall on him; and, consequently, he chooses for Minister of Marine a man who is up to the work, and will do it well. He selects him on just the same principle as a gentleman chooses his gardener, or a manufacturer, as Mr. Cobden describes, his foreman. An inefficient Minister of Marine would be speedily discharged; for he has no other political basis whatever than his capacity to do the work efficiently. In England, it is quite otherwise. A man is placed at the head of the navy or the army, or even of the whole government, not because he has the ability and the knowledge to qualify him to discharge the duties of those several departments, but because he is a man of great political weight, and must be placed somewhere; because he speaks well, and influences the House of Commons; or because he has many political friends who support him—not on account of special attainments, but on quite general grounds. Hence the members of an English Government never feel themselves really answerable for the goodness or badness of the work done in their several offices; provided they can keep the country and the House of Commons from being too angry, they are generally indifferent as to all the rest. Besides—and this is a fatal lever which lifts the weight from their conscience—they know perfectly well that the only choice which the country has lies between themselves and other politicians of precisely the same character—men equally destitute of specific ability and knowledge, and equally sure of falling into the same system and the same faults. Hence the marvellous facility with which blunders and mismanagement are condoned in English political life; even the grossest scarcely scratch the surface of a man otherwise strong or popular. Offenders may be expelled from office by the wrath of the day; but, like corks, they come up as quickly again. This habit of English political life has some advantages: it keeps off bitterness which might, at times, become sanguinary; but one excellence it certainly does not possess—it does not furnish efficient administration to the country.

But the vice lies yet deeper; it is rooted among the *custodes custodum*. The blame must be pushed home to the masters of the House of Commons, the constituencies. A man is elected to Parliament because he is the greatest

landowner in the county, or the kinsman of the possessor of the largest property in the borough, or is the great brewer, or the leading merchant of the town. Such men know that they do not hold their seats on the tenure of enforcing good administrative government, and consequently they do not take the trouble to enforce it. They never feel it to be their own special business, the one duty they have to perform. Hence, the English Constitution knows of no other punishment for incompetent Ministers than the turning them out of office; to be restored speedily to it, when similar misconduct in their successors, or any political feeling or fancy of the hour, may waft them back again. A Minister who has proved his incompetency in every place he has filled thus often makes the round of every post in the Government.

And now we have traced back the evil to its source—does it admit of a remedy? We cannot confidently say that it does, especially whilst prosperity encases the people in good humour. It is a defect which lies in the nature itself of Parliamentary government; it is a disadvantage which that form of government labours under when compared with despotism. It is one, however, which is compensated a hundred times over by the blessings of free government, and it is also one which admits of mitigation. The press, the growth of public intelligence, and the free circulation of opinion may do very much to correct it, without of necessity employing the remedy proposed by Mr. Cobden. Reform is only a means to an end; its object is solely to send more efficient and more responsible men to the House of Commons. Mr. Cobden asks for more reform; but he forgets that he is bound to prove, first, that reform, of which the country has had a large instalment and a wide experience, has already sent better administrative reformers to Parliament than were in it before, and that the thing needed is to have more of them, and that then the work will be done. He must show that he himself, and Mr. Bright, and the many traders introduced into the House of Commons by the Reform Bill, have done their full duty in the furtherance of good administrative government; that they have been present at the voting of the estimates, and struggled against jobs, stupidity, and inefficiency, even at the risk of defeating their own political friends; that they have been overborne by numbers and outvoted. When they have made these points good, they will have made out a *prima facie* case for more reform; till then, it is mere fanaticism and claptrap to assume that an extension of the franchise to artisans and carpenters will enrich the House of Commons with members better qualified by will and intelligence, than Mr. Cobden and the men already in Parliament, to teach and compel the Admiralty to build good and cheap ships, and to make a more economical use of the money supplied by the taxes on the people.

#### SYMPTOMS OF SCHISM IN THE ITALIAN CHURCH.

Among all the strange variety of facts and circumstances which, arising from day to day, and almost from hour to hour, make the spectacle of Italy labouring in the throes of her regeneration one of the most interesting that can be offered to the politician and the student of social progress, there are none more weightily freighted with important consequences to the future of the new-born kingdom than those which indicate the nascent tendencies of opinion in religious matters. We hear more, as might be expected, of the more obvious, more visible, more noisy, and more immediately active movements on the part of either the government or the people, which are actively shaping the daily course of the newly-constituted society in matters pertaining to its material interests. The due recognition of the young kingdom's right to a place in the family of nations, and a seat at the diplomatic family table, is important. And there has been, Heaven knows, talk enough over the matter; and France, like a jealous guardian, out of whose hands the much-prized power of administration and interference with a minor on the eve of his majority is on the point of passing, is determined to make as much as possible of the brief interval of power over Italy which remains to her. The consolidation and assimilation of the code, civil and criminal, which is to be the law of the entire country, is very important, and necessitates inevitably a vast amount of more or less noisy discussion, and of clashing among different interests and opinions. And no less important and interesting is the satisfactory conclusion of the loan, which is necessary for placing the national finances on a firm and safely established footing,—a matter which of course carries with it an interest especially its own to a large class of men in every part of Europe. These are the things with which European as well as Italian opinion and discussion is chiefly and most noisily busy.

But, in truth, none of these matters are of such permanent consequences, so fraught with consequences of quite illimitable magnitude to the future destinies of the country, as the small and barely perceptible commencements of a tone of thought and feeling in religious matters, by which—to use a physiological metaphor—the first cells of a new organisation in that all-influencing department are being evolved. To English readers, it would be extremely superfluous to enlarge on the national as well as individual importance of the tone and character of religious opinions and convictions prevailing in the individual minds of the members of the body social. But it is not of the yet higher and more vital influences of religious opinion, properly so called, that we are now speaking, but rather of those which may be, with more precision, termed ecclesiastical. No people on the face of the earth, at this or at any other epoch of the world's history, have ever more habitually felt, or been in a condition more completely to appreciate, the value of the former, than the English public; but, for some generations past, their national life has not, God be thanked! been such as to lead them to a vivid recognition of all the enormous importance of its ecclesiastical system to a nation circumstanced as Italy for many ages has been, and, in a great degree, still is.

Catholicism has been to Italy not merely a system of more or less Christian doctrine for the formation and guidance of each man's ideas of the invisible, and the conduct and regulation of his own inner life—such indeed it has not been for more than one generation in any true and really practical degree—so much as a part and parcel of the government by which his outward life was despotically ruled. To the great majority of the people—to so large a majority that, practically, it may be considered as the entire nation—it has been yet more than this. It has been their amusement, their relaxation, their dissipation. It has found for itself some means of connection with almost every act and function of every-day life. The most irreligiously



mindful man could not get on with the ordinary business of life without taking part in its outward forms and observances. The most sceptically disposed intellect could not lead a man to drag his daily life out of the deep grooves and ruts made for it to run in by the ecclesiastical constitution of the society. Divergence was not only forbidden under civil pains and penalties, but rendered practically impossible by the same sort of social inconvenience which would impede the life of a man who should insist on doing all his business and all his pleasures at hours diametrically opposed to the habits of the rest of the society in which he lived.

At no epoch and in no part of the world probably did any form of faith ever subsist as the dominant religion of a great people, on so small a basis of real spiritual conviction as Italian Catholicism. Even the feeling, which is usually called superstition, has had but a comparatively small part in maintaining its ascendancy. The natural turn and character of the Italian, and especially of the Tuscan mind, is not inclined to the usual forms of superstition. It is, for the present, too materialistic. It occupies itself too little about the invisible to be very profoundly moved by the forms under which it represents to itself any of the aspects of that unseen world, which appeals so forcibly to the imaginations of more northern races. Authority, convenience, habit, immemorial custom,—these have been the bases and the supports of the system, which has stood to the Italians in the place of a religion.

Now it will be readily perceived, that in a state of society thus constituted, the breaking up of such a system, even looking at the matter as apart from the higher questions touching the influence of religion on each individual heart, must produce a social earthquake, such as cannot fail violently to shake the fabric of society to its foundations. That the shock will be of benefit, of quite incalculable benefit indeed to Italy and to the future career of the nation, no Protestant can doubt; and even many a sincere Catholic may be inclined to admit. And under such circumstances there is the greatest interest in taking note of the earliest vibrations, which indicate the coming convulsion.

Such vibrations have already become perceptible to those who take an interest in watching the process of self-transformation which is going on in Italy; and it can hardly be doubted that they will from day to day become more violent. But our attention has on the present occasion been specially called to the subject by a very remarkable document recently published at Florence and which now lies before us. It is an address to the people of Tuscany by the body of priests belonging to the recently formed "Ecclesiastical Mutual Assistance Society."

The object of this association, as has been before stated, is to afford assistance to those priests, whose liberal political opinions have made them obnoxious to their ecclesiastical superiors, and who, from this cause, are in danger of being deprived of the means of obtaining a livelihood. The step taken in the formation of this Society would seem, however, to have drawn down upon it *en masse* the full measure of the calamity against which it was intended to provide. For the Archbishop of Florence has declared every ecclesiastic belonging to it to be *ipso facto* suspended *a divinis*, if he shall not have ceased to be a member of it before the 20th of this month. Such a sentence is nothing less than condemnation to starvation to many of them. They have had a meeting to consider what steps should be taken in consequence of the Archbishop's decree; at which it was determined to call upon him, by a judicially served citation, to state the grounds of his condemnation of the society. Such a step seems to call upon the court to exercise a function altogether different from any known to our legal practice. And it seems to us, moreover, that no good result can follow from it. For the Archbishop will assuredly reply, as he is quite entitled to do, that he is in no wise responsible to any civil authority for any exercise of his spiritual power; that the punishment pronounced against these priests is a purely spiritual one, of the application of which he must necessarily be the sole judge.

Nor, indeed, can it be a matter of surprise to any one, who has seen the document above referred to, that a Catholic Bishop should put every means of coercion in his power in action against the authors and publishers of it.

The associated priests begin by telling the Tuscans that they are "determined to follow in all and through all the ancient religion of our fathers—of Dante, of Michael Angelo, and of Galileo; and to be Catholics in spite of bad priests, and of those who, at the present day, evilly administer the Catholic Church." They protest, too, that they neither have made, or ever will make, any schism in the Church. But when we find them speaking of "bad bishops and priests," who "turn their looks to Rome as to their centre and polar star" . . . "to that Rome which, having parted from its ancient wisdom, dreams that a return to the things of the past, to the middle ages, and to the inquisition, is possible;" when we read, that they "loudly declare, in order to be heard by all men, that however great may be our love and respect for the principle of authority, yet, since this, like every other human thing, may be abused, we in consequence hold, that the clergy are not bound in conscience, in our case, to obey their superiors; since, however, much blind and passive obedience may belong to the Jesuits, it is not and cannot be the part of true Catholics;"—when, further on, we come, not without amused surprise in this year 1861, upon the *naïve* declaration that "this doctrine admirably couples together, and harmonizes authority and human liberty, by causing that those who hold in their hands the first, *command good and reasonable things*, and that those who have to use the second, be cautious, attentive, and careful, to see whether the thing commanded them be in opposition to higher duties;"—when we read all this and more to similar purpose, we not only feel compelled, entirely as our sympathies are with the illogical but patriotic contumacious ecclesiastics, to acquit the Bishop of doing aught that it was not the bounden duty of a Roman Catholic Bishop to do; but we must entirely dissent from the declaration of our "protesting" friends that all this does not mean schism.

What! an ecclesiastical superior is to be obeyed by the priests under his hierarchical rule, when he commands what is good (the inferior, of course, by the terms of the hypothesis, being the judge of his goodness), and the priest is to disobey his bishop only when he finds that his commands are in opposition to a higher duty! Shades of Baronius, Bellarmine, and Loyola! Why a Muggletonian, or whoever may be deemed to occupy "the extreme left" in the ranks of dissenting Protestantism, could ask no more than this! Where is the man who is not willing to act in compliance with directions which seem good to him?

In truth, the positions assumed by professedly orthodox priests in this extraordinary document are strangely significant and ominous. The SPIRIT OF PRIVATE JUDGMENT once evoked will not readily be exorcised. We know—we English—the goal towards which that mighty, ever-encroaching, all-absorbing, yet beneficent and indispensable spirit sets his face, from the instant that he has once been permitted to breathe and move; and we can form, therefore, some notion of the nature of the work he will be busy with at the commencement of his career in Italy.

#### COMPROMISE.

OUR inveterate habit of COMPROMISE in political matters is often thrown in our teeth as a reproach both by foreigners and by the more precise and systematic thinkers among ourselves. "There is nothing," we are told, "scientific in our legislation; nothing distinct or self-consistent in our policy; we mar the clearest principles by temporising with their opposites; we botch the wisest schemes by paring them away to pacify objectors; we weaken, and in fact betray, the strongest entrenchments of sense and logic by allowing a breach in them at the instance of stupid supporters who do not understand wherein their impregnability consists, or of resolute antagonists who understand it only too well. No project of law can be adopted as a whole; no plan of action can be carried out in its entirety; no party is supreme in power, and none therefore can be consistent and uniform in action. Everybody gets a little of his way; everybody has a finger in the pie: the necessary consequence is that the way is vacillating and corkscrewish, and the pie is a bungle and a mess. The national course is not what the nation, or any great party in the nation, proposes to itself, or really desires: it is a diagonal, decided by the relative influence of contending forces. In consequence it is often unintelligible, often indefensible;—never *in seipso totus, teres atque rotundus*."

We may admit all this to its fullest extent. Yet it is not the less certain that this tendency to compromise, this incurable habit of compromise, is practically one of our most valuable national characteristics, and an indication of three of the rarest and highest national virtues. It is that which alone can make free or democratic institutions work or endure: it is that by the possession of which England and Sardinia have succeeded, and from the absence of which France has failed. M. Guizot, some years since, laid his finger on this blot, and every subsequent experience has confirmed the accuracy both of his diagnosis and of his forebodings. He pronounced that the passion which rendered stability and permanence impossible in France—and which, till it was conquered or cured, must continue to do so—was the presumptuous and tyrannous pretension, common to every man and every party in that astounding country, to monopolise all power in their own hands, and to impose their own ideas upon all minds,—to endure the modifying and restraining vicinity of no rival near the throne, to recognise no fraction of truth in other views, and no vestige of validity in competing claims.

The reason why a capacity and disposition for compromise is so indispensable to the just and harmonious working of free institutions, needs scarcely a sentence to make it clear. A nation comprises many distinct classes and many varieties of mind. Different classes have diverse, if not conflicting, interests; different minds have discrepant, if not antagonistic, views. For any one class to be supreme is social tyranny; for any one set of ideas to be supreme is mental tyranny. Even if the majority be supreme over the minority, it is still tyranny, and often tyranny of the most crushing and demoralising sort. Free institutions, real political liberty, can only work or exist where tyranny of whatever description or in whatever guise—even, or especially, that of numbers—is effectually excluded. To make free institutions practicable and enduring, therefore, it is indispensable that every class in society and every class of thoughts should share the power, should influence and limit every other, should yield and defer to every other, should "give and take" (as the phrase is) in that just proportion and degree which can only be ascertained by long experience and by mutual forbearance. For Lords or Commons, for Aristocracy or Democracy, for Whig or Tory, for Liberal or Conservative, for the Party of Order or the Party of Progress, to insist on having things all their own way, would be a *breach of equity*, a breach of those fundamental conditions on which free government and self-government are based. France has never learned this alphabet of freedom; England has never forgotten it; America, it would seem, has gone far towards losing it; Italy seems to have got hold of it by instinct.

We have said that the habit of political compromise implied the possession, by the nation distinguished for it, of three signal excellencies. It implies moderation in its own desires, respect for the claims and desires of others, and power of looking at both sides of a question. To a nation thus happily endowed compromise is natural. To a nation thus endowed everything—even immortality—is possible; for the rocks on which other argosies make shipwreck lie deep below the tranquil waters over which it sails.

For a people to be moderate in their aims, and reticent in the means by which they pursue them, and economical in the price at which they are prepared to purchase them,—to strive, not for the best conceivable nor even for the best possible law, or institution, or reform, but for the best that is attainable without too great disturbance, or too serious sacrifices, or too much force put upon the wishes of a dissentient minority,—to guard themselves habitually against such an exaggerated estimate of the good they wish for as would tempt them into the error of doing evil in order to obtain it,—is to have reached almost to the theoretical standard of the philosophers of old. Individuals nearly always, and nations usually, work themselves up to such a pitch of enthusiasm for any object they earnestly desire, as blinds them both to its positive value and its relation to the price which must be paid for its attainment; and they do this generally in proportion to the activity of their imaginations and the energy of their wills. They are apt to deem nothing too great, either in effort or in sacrifice, which can ensure success; they refuse and resent all quiet calculation; they grow furious under opposition, and hiss like hot iron when the cold water of rationality is thrown upon their estimates and schemes. The very idea of compromise is abhorrent to their imperious and unchastened tempers; for compromise implies an admission, *first*, that it may be better to be content with half than to risk all by too insatiable a grasp; *secondly*, that the object is not so inordinately great as they had excited themselves to

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fancy; and, *thirdly*, that their power is not so paramount as they believed;—all such concessions are gall and wormwood to immoderate and unchastened minds.

Again: willingness to compromise indicates a respect for the rights and wishes of others, which can rarely be found except among the citizens of a free state, and which is, in fact, a notable Christian virtue not early nor easily attained. Even a reasonable and modest estimate of the worth of their own objects will scarcely reconcile men to being thwarted and baffled in the pursuit of them, unless they habitually recognize a corresponding claim in others to directly opposite opinions and to equally peremptory wills. They will not patiently submit to be opposed, unless they distinctly realise in their antagonists the *right* of opposition. They will not recoil before impediments which they think ought not to be there; but when they remember that society is composed of a number of individuals, each of whom has an equal right,—or at least, a definite and *in limine* right,—to have his own way, and that, therefore, no one can have his own way always or entirely,—they perceive, without any elaborate process of reasoning, that compromise must be, not only inevitably, but equitably, the normal issue of all differences.

But even reasonable and just men do not acquiesce contentedly in being overruled by a majority or in being compelled to modify their plans to meet the wishes of a minority, if it be *merely* power and volition that are opposed to them. People may have an unquestionable legal *right* to say, "Sic volo, sic jubeo: stet pro ratione voluntas;" but no one bows cheerfully to a claim so asserted. Cordial compromise implies not only that we acknowledge our antagonist's power, but that we recognise some reason in his arguments. Our understanding is not convinced, our will is not converted; but we can see that much may be said on our adversary's side, and that what is said may probably enough be satisfactory to his mind. In the course of discussion we have looked at both sides of the question; we have learned, at all events, that it has two sides; if we had not, the diagonal course we finally adopt would be enforced submission rather than willing bargain.

On the whole, then, it seems plain enough that our national disposition to compromise is a quality of which we may, not irrationally, be proud as well as glad.

#### "PRETTY HORSEBREAKERS."

A READY writer, masquerading in the garb of a fashionable mother in Belgravia, and pretending to speak on behalf of seven ladies who have twenty-four marriageable but unmarried daughters between them, has made choice of the columns of the *Times* to draw a picture of modern society which is anything but flattering. He who wrote and those who published the sketch evidently intended it to excite comment and controversy; and they have not been disappointed. Though the main fact alleged may not prove to be exactly as stated there is sufficient semblance of truth in it, as well as in the minor facts by which it is supported, to make it worthy of the publicity which it has received, and to justify the masculine writer for the assumption of the feminine character in a communication which no woman could have written, but the truth or falsehood of which it was expedient that somebody should discuss.

The allegation is to the effect that the daughters of the aristocracy and the well-to-do professional and trading classes no longer find husbands as readily in their own sphere of life as they used to do in former days, and that the reason is to be sought in the immorality of the young men, who prefer to form "temporary engagements" with immodest women to marriage with modest ones.

That the evil thus pointed out exists it is quite impossible for any one who has eyes and ears and common observation to doubt. The only question is, whether it is on the increase. It is certainly not peculiar to the present day. It always has existed, and always will, as long as youth, idleness, much money, little wit, and exuberant animal passion are found together, whether the possessor of these advantages or disadvantages be an aristocrat or one of a lower class. But if it exist in a greater degree and intensity in the present day than it did in those of our fathers and grandfathers, it is of the highest importance to discover its causes, that public opinion may do what it can to check the degeneracy ere it lead to worse evils, if not to national decay and ruin.

Those who believe that the fact is as the *soi-disant* mothers of Belgravia allege it to be, find a variety of reasons for it, some of them not complimentary to the manhood, and many of them highly derogatory to the womanhood, of our time. Among the most prominent of the explanations which may be offered, supposing the facts to be true, is the "fastness" of our young men, and the prevalent habit of smoking, so generally offensive to ladylike women, which compels the selfish lovers of tobacco either to withdraw from female society to clubs or other places of public resort, or to frequent the company of women who are pretty enough to be attractive, and vulgar enough to tolerate, or to like tobacco. A second explanation may be sought in the evil effect upon the morals of both sexes which grows out of the affectation, mealy-mouthedness, and prudery of modern society, which does not call a spade a spade, or a lie a lie, but covers vice with a mantle of fair words, and decorates it with euphemisms. If the character and the personal charms of women of the class which the Greeks called "hetære;" whom the French call "lorettes;" and whom our plain-spoken forefathers, with a sturdy indifference to niceties, either of expression or of meaning, called by a very ugly word of one syllable, which is never mentioned in our day except by the coarsest of the vulgar, are discussed in the presence of modest women; if the "social evil" is publicly commented upon, and the attractions of "pretty horsebreakers" [such, it appears, is the new Belgravian and Tyburnian epithet], are canvassed by the mothers of England in the presence of their sons and daughters, what can possibly result but the gradual removal of the ancient barrier that, in times far more vicious than our own, separated by a wide and impassable gulf the virtuous maid and the chaste matron from their guilty and degraded sisters?

A third explanation, which the experience of every one above the class of the mechanic and day-labourer must know to be well founded, is the luxurious style of living which, within the last eight or ten years, has corrupted the very heart of the professional and commercial community; and the vulgar, tasteless, wanton extravagance in dress which stupid fashion has rendered imperative upon women, to the impoverishment of husbands and fathers, and

to the permanent unhappiness of many a home. How can a young man earning two or three hundred a year, marry a woman who expects to spend eighty or a hundred a year upon her dressmaker, her milliner, her glover, and her bootmaker? How, in a higher grade, can a struggling professional man, earning a precarious income of a thousand per annum, afford the luxury of matrimony if his wife make herself miserable unless she can dress herself at a cost of a third of his revenues? and insists upon giving great parties and *soirées* because she in her time has been invited by richer people, and must ape their manners, under penalty of her own contempt?

A fourth explanation, more palpable, perhaps, than any of the preceding, and which does not so much refer to the lament of the wealthy matrons of Belgravia on the look-out for the heirs to dukedoms, marquises, earldoms, and baronies, or even the successors to rich partnerships in breweries or great houses in the City, as to the respectable middle classes, who have their way to make in the world by their own exertions and abilities, is the deplorably deficient state of female education in all that is socially and economically useful.

If a woman is to pass her whole time in making a noise at or upon the pianoforte, or in visiting and chattering; if she can do nothing else but paint and draw, or make wax flowers, or embroider slippers or braces; if she understand nothing whatever of household economy, or how to make a shilling produce a shilling's worth; if she know not how to regulate, superintend, and command her servants—how to cook, if need be, and how to make a small joint by judicious condiments and ordinary skill do the duty of a large one; if, moreover, she be so ignorant of the laws of her own health and that of her offspring as to run to a doctor and pay him a fee for the most trifling ailment that a peasant's wife could understand and cure, without either advice, assistance, or expense—how shall a young man bear the burthen of supporting a creature that may be ornamental, but who is so unmistakably useless? The wife of a poor man in former days was the woman who, by her loving thrift and zealous companionship in all that related to her husband's well-being, made the income that was insufficient for the single man more than sufficient for the wedded pair. But the whole course of modern female education has been of a nature to eradicate this noble species of womanhood out of the middle and upper classes, and to implant instead of it a weakly sentimental doll, expensively nurtured, expensively dressed, and quite inefficient for the real work and duty of life.

In short, and as a general summary of the controversy that has been raised, we do not believe that the youth of the wealthy classes in England are more immoral than English youth of the same class has been in time past, or than youth is in other parts of the world; but we do fear that the tendency of the existing mode of life among the middle classes is such as often to discourage matrimony, and to increase the numbers of the "Hetære" and "pretty horsebreakers," and that the only real cure for this national evil, against which all the fulminations of the pulpit and the press are in vain, is a better system of physical, social, and moral education for women, the recognition of poverty as an irremediable fact, which is not necessarily dishonourable, and the subsidence of the present inflation of dishonest appearance in favour of the honest reality. Is there to be no virtuous and happy marriage amongst us except for the day-labourer and the millionaire? It will be a bad day for England if such be the results upon the middle classes, of the unwholesome striving of professional trading and moderately wealthy people to appear richer and better than they are, which underlies and infects our whole civilization. There are some ugly questions in our time which are not pleasant to raise, but which it is necessary to confront, and this is of the number.

#### THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

THERE is dignity in the death of men and institutions, however commonplace their course or undignified their life. The laugh hushes by the bedside of the fat Knight Falstaff, while the grace of a forgotten day comes over his deboshed soul, and he "babbles o' green fields." But the closing hours of a life nobly spent, the surcease of an Order which has written its annals on the page of History, have in them a gravity of interest quieting animosities, and commanding thought. This week a great Order dies; the sword of the State gives the *coup-de-grace* to a Service which has done more for it than to deserve hasty execution. For, gloss it as we may—excellent as the purposes of the Indian Minister may be—the Bill which asks leave, for the Government or the dominant political party, to nominate Civil Servants, saps the life of the Civil Service.

The time is doubtless come when the monopoly of the "covenanted" cannot longer be maintained. The enfranchisement of office is as much a corollary of the change in India's Government as the amalgamation of her armies. Nor, indeed, is the sentence now for the first time pronounced. In 1833, and again in 1853, Acts of Parliament issued, declaring natives eligible to civil offices; and the Gentiles of the "uncovenanted" have more than once passed from the outer court of office into the *adyta* of the "covenant." It is true that, acts of Parliament notwithstanding, their admission was rare, and regarded as a concession; but the mutiny had not arrived to teach the masters of India submission and their supplanters audacity.

It came and passed, adding many a name to the roll of good and faithful civil servants, but sweeping away the great Company they had served. At that time the nation, long ago impatient of open jobbery in appointments, had grown wise enough to demand competitive examinations; not indeed conceiving such selection infallible, but well assured that a Minister's caprice was less so. Thus the civil service, which had been the domain of the Company, and for which they had reared their young proconsuls by an education wonderfully appropriate and successful, escaped the danger of falling into the hands of the Ministers. It was consigned, instead, to the people, by a wise and statesmanly measure, which declared the appointments of the "covenanted" open to all comers of certain age and of proved abilities.

The Service in India accepted all this with good grace; the "competition-wallas" were received and even welcomed, as not unworthy to uphold its proud traditions. They were seen without jealousy to become excellent public officers, and the civil service, strengthened by their adhesion, certainly considered "the bitterness of death was past." But it is now declared that the competitive examination does not produce a field of recruits large enough for such splendid prizes. It is asserted that with abler men, Native and European, among the "uncovenanted," it is no longer well to throw a



province to one of every two in an examination-hall; and, on this ground, the Indian Minister asks leave for himself and for the Governor-General to nominate at need to the long-closed Service. That is to say, he demands a right, jealously reserved from him by the Company, anxiously denied to him nine years ago, and only to be granted—*teste* Macaulay—at the deadly peril of jobbery in Indian appointments, and consequent collapse in Indian Government.

Let us at once admit the reasonableness of the request to open some gate into the Civil Service for the uncovenanted. It is clearly absurd to exclude from office the ability and experience of a large Indian class, whose members cut their wisdom teeth too long ago to be eligible for examination. The public hardly knows—possibly Sir Charles Wood has yet to learn—what manner of men have been thus excluded. The Professors and Principals of the Government Colleges; the Directors of Public Instruction, and such scholars as Sir Alexander Grant, of the Elphinstone College, and the learned Dr. Ballantyne, of Benares, are, or were, “uncovenanted.” In official and political life, this “taboo” shut out men of singular gifts and great influence, and altogether forbade the promotion of native desert. One who knows India can name on his fingers the natives in Government employ drawing so much as half a “first assistant’s” salary. Let us say frankly, that in Bombay, where there are so many native gentlemen of great attainments, of noble munificence, and of high reputation, there is but one now drawing more than Rs. 500 (about a Captain’s pay) per mensem. The civil servant would themselves acknowledge that the Indian Government is unwisely robbed of such support as these and the best of the uncovenanted Europeans could give. Only they urge the rights of the Service—they deprecate that governmental power which begins in law to end in licence, and they point to greater liberality in bestowing and endowing appointments as the one thing needful to fill the lists of the Civil Service Examiners with an *embarras des richesses*.

But the past is to pass. The principle of the bill was allowed with its second reading; and those select senators who hold the affairs of Asia as worthy of their attention as an Irish job, or a French acrobat, have wisely set themselves to surround it with precautions. The poison-fangs were drawn, we think, from Sir Charles Wood’s pretty but dangerous pet, when Lord Stanley’s condition was accepted, that appointments to office should be permissible only after seven years’ residence. If anything can be certain in what concerns the slippery Proteus of place, it would seem that neither a Governor-General nor a Minister can well patronize nepotically against such a limitation. It will exclude many a deserving man from a post which he would illustrate; but it may exclude Government from many an irresistible job, which is much more important. Who can tell what political necessity may some day override the good intentions of a President of the Council? Not the public,—so innocent of Indian experience, and grateful now to Mr. Laing for the astounding discovery, that India, with her army on a peace footing, is normally solvent! However, the Bill as it stands is a good Bill, and the Indian Minister, wrong in rejecting Mr. Adam’s clause, justly declined his amendment. The uncovenanted servant is not always bound, at present, to accept no bribes or presents; and elected a Civil servant, he ought to take the obligations of one. On the other hand, the choice of Government, if it is to be made, should be free of other tests than length of service and knowledge of the vernacular. Both these conditions are of course in favour of qualified natives, whose promotion to places of trust will date from this Bill. But with Hurree Punt for Collector, and half-castes for judges, the name and nature of the Civil Service drops. The new Order may do as good work as the old, and will seem more in keeping with the times and their requirements. But that which Clive began grew up to boast a nobility—a caste mark—a corporate tradition which it will not survive. A good and reasonable Reform must yet exact its victims, and with the Civil Service Bill passes also the “Civil Service.”

#### THE DUTY ON FIRE INSURANCE.

A LETTER which appeared this week in the *Times*, on the subject of the great fire, after stating that the British Museum, Buckingham Palace, and the splendid collections at Brompton are not insured, commends the omission to insure them on the ground of economy. How is it that it is entitled to this praise? It would seem, on the contrary, that if the premiums of the different insurance companies be calculated only at such a rate as will combine a fair profit to them with an adequate protection to the insurer, neglect of insurance must be a most culpable piece of improvidence. Those rates are so calculated, and yet thousands of people think non-insurance the more prudent alternative. The fact is, that there is a tax on every policy, which amounts to a sum larger than the premium; and many of those who would gladly pay the premium doubt the wisdom of paying both premium and tax too. To render the reasons which actuate such persons more intelligible, it must be remembered that insurance and non-insurance are both speculations; that the whole system of insuring is one of speculation, founded on a wide induction, by which its calculations are framed.

An insurance office which charges, we will, for example, say, a pound a thousand, fixes that rate because it has ascertained that, on a large average, the number of houses injured by fire in a year is rather less than one in a thousand—just sufficiently less for the margin to leave them a fair profit. A thousand to one, therefore, may be taken as very nearly representing the risk incurred by each individual. And if those were the odds really taken by an insurer (we descend to the phraseology of the betting ring, because no other formula will express our meaning so concisely and so clearly), probably scarcely anyone would be found so rashly to neglect guarding against heavy loss at so disproportionate an expense. But then Government steps in and adds, we will say, thirty shillings of tax to the twenty shilling premium; or, in other words, reduces the odds of a thousand to one to four hundred to one. Now a man who will take a thousand to one, where he believes the strict odds to be perhaps twelve hundred to one, will hesitate at taking four hundred to one about the same event, because that is only one-third of the real odds.

Let us put the case in another way. Suppose one man to own 400 houses. If the money to be paid for insuring amount to only one in a thousand, he may very likely insure, since once in three years he will expect to have a house burnt; but if the money to be paid be one in four hundred, he will

probably not insure because he will have to pay as if he expected to have a house burnt every year—that is to say, he will be paying a sum nearly trebling the real risk which he incurs.

In the case of such extensive proprietors, if indeed there be any such, it manifestly matters but little whether they insure or not. But the same consideration will also influence the owners or tenants of a single house, to many of whom, if uninsured, a fire would cause utter ruin, and yet who grudge insuring, or who, if they insure at all, do so for an insufficient amount, because they feel that, in paying both premium and tax, they will be paying at a rate wholly and confessedly disproportionate to the risks to which they are subject.

That a tax, of which the operation is such, is most objectionable and most mischievous is too plain to require argument. It is a direct tax upon virtue; for judicious providence is virtue, and this is a heavy tax upon judicious providence. Being such, it acts as a discouragement to its exercise; and, moreover, it discourages it just when its operation would be most beneficial. There can be no moment when the advantages of providence and economy are more felt than when they come to relieve or avert the pressure of sudden calamity. And this they seldom do more conspicuously than when their precious exercise promptly repairs the losses of the man who has seen his property destroyed by a conflagration. Other taxes are taxes upon superfluities and luxuries, perhaps upon vices; this is a tax upon that which is at once a necessity to every man, and also a virtue, and yet one of which, in this particular form, the advantages are so uncertain, that the temptations to disregard it are unusually strong, and that its exercise requires encouragement rather than repression.

In that great fire, from the consternation caused by which London has scarcely yet recovered, the property consumed is stated to have been insured for about half its value; the insurance being so limited, evidently not because the insurers were not desirous fully to protect themselves, but because they had reckoned that they could only afford to pay a certain sum yearly for that object; and the Government took more than half of it. In this particular instance, therefore, the tax upon insurance has mulcted a body of our merchants of almost a million of money, selecting just the moment when they have suffered one of the heaviest losses incurred in the memory of man.

We are no advocates for agitation of any kind, but such agency has been employed before, and not unsuccessfully, to procure the removal of taxes which injured no one, while any advantages to be derived from such removal were wholly problematical. And if such a system can ever be justifiable, surely it can never be more blamelessly, nay more usefully set in action, than in opposition to an impost which violates every principle of political economy, and injures, or at least has a liability to injure, every member of the community, not only by diminishing his pecuniary resources in the hour of misfortune, but also by weakening those principles, and discouraging those habits of prudence and foresight, which are alike essential to the well-being of the individual and the nation.

#### LITTLE REFORMS.—POLICE-CELLS.

THERE are no Members of Parliament little reformers. The moment an advanced Liberal takes the oath and his seat, he may think of his own particular scheme of a reform bill; the instant a nascent Conservative has legislative power, he may promise himself to oppose all Parliamentary reform whatever; but neither man gives his attention to the question of little reforms, to matters which may be below the attention of leaders, but of which considerable parliamentary capital could be made by men who, in their wildest dreams, never contemplate the possession of the premiership. These necessary little reforms might be run off in scores on the fingers. They are questions which involve no doubt, and only require publicity to obtain a just answer. But they are too insignificant for an M.P. to deal with; and as all change is remodelled in Westminster, session after session passes away, and these blots upon our social system are still allowed to disfigure it. One of these necessary and long-wanted little reforms will furnish sufficient grounds for protest in this article—the common police-station cell throughout the land. A short time back, copies of the following paragraph appeared in obscure corners of the daily press:—

“DEATH IN A POLICE-CELL.—Yesterday morning a man, who, on Sunday, was taken into custody in the Strand for being drunk and incapable, was found insensible in one of the cells at Bow-street station. Mr. Painter, the surgeon to the force, was immediately sent for, but shortly after he arrived the man died. The unfortunate man had given his name as Jerome Rudd, and stated that he was a printer.”

So the matter ended. The obscure paragraph, and a minute’s wonder and pity. The editor takes no notice of the news. He is not aware of any peculiar circumstances in the case; there is nothing apparently important in the matter, and he has a thousand subjects which will furnish work for his pen. He has no idea of the bearings of the case, and cannot find in it the significance which some discover. How often do such paragraphs as that just quoted appear in the public prints? It may be a difficult question to answer, but it is certain that such an item of news does not attract by its novelty. He must be a very unfrequent reader of the daily press indeed, who does not recognize in such a report a periodical catastrophe.

Broadly speaking, it may without fear be asserted that English and French law both spring from the same source. The fructification of the ages has resulted, however, in a couple of systems of criminal law widely different. Whatever the theory in French law may be, it is certain that, in practice, the accused man is considered guilty till he is declared innocent. In England the exact inverse is the very spirit of the law—the accused is recognised as innocent till declared guilty. Yet in the preliminary action of the two systems, the same injustice still exists which was exercised in the twelfth century.

In the spirit and practice of English law, the accused man being recognized as innocent until he is proved to be guilty, it might be supposed that the preliminary imprisonment, when imprisonment is necessary, would be characterised by extreme leniency and consideration. It might be imagined by a tyro in these matters, that as the convicted thief is the subject of so much consideration—whether rightly or wrongly exercised is not the question—the unconvicted thief, the man recognized as utterly innocent, as a wrongfully-



accused man in the spirit and the practice of the law, would meet with far more consideration and leniency than the convict. Is this the case? The convict has in many instances a well-ventilated cell in an airy building. His food is good, and his prison is warmed; visiting justices look after him; he is blessed with God's light; and in all his surroundings may be found an evidence of that civilization which has pulled down the shameful prison-houses of our forefathers.

On the other hand, the common police-cell, in which it may be the misfortune of any one to be thrust till he can prove his innocence next morning before the magistrate, is a miserable hole—unlighted, unwarmed, unventilated, chiefly of stone, with a wretched wooden seat running round the walls, and a water-closet in one corner.

Indisputably some of the metropolitan police-cells are better than others; but if many of those in London prove a state of things abominably unjust and uncivilized, we are afraid to say what depths of legal brutality are to be found in many of the provincial cells.

The writer visited, a short time back, the cells of one of the largest metropolitan police-stations. There were, perhaps, half-a-dozen cells. There were frequently twenty charges of a morning: a state of things which involved the herding together of three and four persons in each cell—a cell about eight feet by six.

These cells opened upon a yard; and when the doors were closed, no light whatever penetrated these dismal holes. No ventilation existed, and no means of warmth were apparent. A wicket in the door allowed the keeper—the policeman on duty, to peer into the cell at stated intervals. Such is the police-cell—the place of preliminary imprisonment in the most important metropolis in the world. Imagine a delicate consumptive man taken upon a charge of felony—whether truly or falsely is not here the question, nor, in the eyes of the law, should his innocence or guilt have any weight whatever in judging the matter,—imagine such a man taken up at six o'clock on the Saturday night, and thrown into one of these receptacles. There he must remain, even if it be winter, without light, fire, or fresh air, till Monday at twelve—forty-two hours. If such a man dies under this sentence—pronounced before hearing his case—how shall we designate his death? The visitation of God, or the injustice of man? Natural death, or MURDER?

As to food in the police-cell, there is no provision for it; so if the poor wretch cast into the cell at six p.m. on Saturday, have neither friends nor money, it must be presumed that he starves unless relieved by the compassion of the police.

This is very certain, that the discomfort of the common police-cell could barely be increased; it is far worse than exposure to the open air would be, by reason of the heavy, damp, de-oxygenated air which affects it. It may be said that another discomfort might be added—a pool of stagnant water as a floor. It may be answered, this discomfort has not been wanting to complete the barbarity of the English police-cell. It is a fact that, if not at the present day, till very recently, the cells attached to a metropolitan police-court were actually the converted coal and other cellars of the private house in which the court was held.

But the catalogue of the dangers and injustice of police-cells is not yet complete. It is the custom with the police to search all newly-arrested prisoners, upon their being charged, to take possession of any knife or other weapon they may have upon them. This is done to prevent self-destruction, and a very wise precaution it is, for an innocent man might, in the first agony of the degradation of being a prisoner, endeavour, opportunity permitting, to seek his liberty through the gate of death. But there are other ways of driving out life than by the use of sharp instruments. The police have orders to search for knives—they have no orders to unceasingly watch their prisoners—nor would it be rational to expect the officers to voluntarily incarcerate themselves for this purpose in unlit, unwarmed, unventilated stone cells. How often do we read of prisoners, generally drunkards, being found in police-cells hanging in their handkerchiefs, or wholly or partly strangled in their garters or stockings. The police have no orders to perpetually watch the cells, but it seems to be a rule to visit the cells at stated intervals, and it is at such times that the officer on duty discovers these attempted or successful suicides. But if the reader thinks that all these cases get into the papers, he is mistaken. The lower class of newspaper reporters, from whom these paragraphs proceed, are naturally hand and glove with the police; it is not to the interest of any division, from A to Z, to publish such mishaps; they beget an ill-name; and the consequence is that the thing is hushed up by the reporter, who frequently depends upon the policeman for many of his most attractive particulars in his line of newspaper life.

Imagine a man, woman, youth, or girl of sanguine, quick temperament being cast into such a cell upon a false charge, and then left to himself or herself. It would require a very rare and exceptional education to crush the suggestion of self-destruction rising in the mind. But a short time back a man charged with murder was arrested within the metropolitan district and placed in a police-cell at Woolwich. It had been searched, then locked up. When next the cell was opened he was found dead. He had poisoned himself. He had secreted poison about him, opportunity had offered, and he was dead. Justice was not only defeated, but his suspected confederates escaped. A short time before this occurrence another case excited a day's wonder. A man, thrown into one of these cells, horrified at his position, actually opened a vein with a piece of the chamber utensil placed in the cell for the prisoners, and which he had broken to procure this rough, but very nearly successful, lancet, for when discovered he was almost dead, the floor of the cell being covered with blood. Possibly not a month goes past without a case of suicide, attempted suicide, or death occurring in a London police-cell.

The case which has been quoted in the opening of this article is another instance of a class of catastrophes to which police-cells are no strangers—apoplexy supervening upon intoxication. Conceive a full-bodied drunken man cast into one of these cells—damp, chill, and unprovided with any accommodation. The man must lie on the floor—his head is low, his neck is compressed, there is no one to look after him,—his fellow-prisoner if he had the will has not the power in the darkness which surrounds them, and then all the conditions which favour apoplexy are present. When the policeman makes his visit the man is insensible—when the doctor arrives he is dead. It is indisputably true that he had no right to be drunk—it is

equally true that the ministrants of the law have negatively aided his death by not taking those precautions which might have preserved his life.

Here, then, we have a system opposed to the spirit of the law, opposed to the spirit of society, and certainly opposed to the spirit of Christianity. It is a system which answers no end, which cannot possibly have any public support, and yet which still exists in all its shameful existence. How is this? The answer is easily given. The system exists by reason, first, of apathy, and, secondly, by public ignorance of the subject. The question of primary imprisonment cannot interest the general public, and unfortunately the masses of humanity who suffer by its conditions have too little strength in the world to make their voices heard. But the injustice of this system is so indisputable, must be so clearly seen, that its publicity should be the immediate precursor of its downfall.

Considerable space has been taken up in detailing the evils of this system, a few lines will suffice in which to sketch its reform. We ask for well-lighted, well-ventilated, well-warmed rooms, in which the ante-hearing incarceration must be endured—rooms watched by the police—rooms consistent and harmonious with the progress which has taken place in most other matters connected with the laws of the land. As a whole, the practical law of the land is vastly different from that imposed by William the Conqueror; the "police-cell," if we may use the term, of the Norman dynasty could barely have excelled that of the nineteenth century in barbarity.

A very cursory investigation of this question must prove to the inquirer that any legislator who endeavoured to ameliorate the condition of the police-court cell would be doing such an act of justice that little or no parliamentary opposition could be made. It is true that a reform like this, and others of a kindred nature, would not confer a halo of popularity about its creator; but it may surely be hoped that there are a few Members of the House of Commons dominated rather by duty than ambition, and who would gladly effect many little reforms, of the necessity of which they are perfectly ignorant.

#### GORILLA MANNERS.

It is a very desirable thing that persons should be found with energy and enterprise to explore the haunts of uncivilized man, not only humanizing the savages, but adding to the stock of knowledge possessed by their more fortunate brethren, by the revelation of the existence, among a portion of mankind in their natural state, of feelings and habits perhaps previously unsuspected, while awakening at the same time a spirit of further investigation and many a train of useful reflection. In a lower degree, a mighty hunter also does a service to his generation; nor, whatever Mr. Cobden may say to the contrary, would such a pursuit have been recorded, as we find it, to Nimrod's honour, if it had been a mere waste of time or a gratuitous exercise of cruelty. But the case is greatly altered when a long sojourn among savages, or an investigation into the nature and habits of monstrous beasts, instead of civilizing the savage merely uncivilizes their visitor, and leads him to import into decent European society manners which would scarcely be tolerated on the banks of the Gaboon, and to perpetrate actions which would be not unlikely to promote the wrath of even the baboons which lurk in the almost untrodden fastnesses of inland Africa.

This, however, is what appears to have lately happened in a very remarkable instance. It is known to all our readers, that a Frenchman of the name of Chaillu has lately published an account of his travels, which he professes to have extended far into regions hitherto unknown, and where he asserts himself to have made discoveries, his relation of which has created great interest among the scientific societies in this country. His statements have been subjected to severe examination, as it was fit that they should be. And while some high authorities have thrown great doubts upon their accuracy, others, of at least equal reputation, have proclaimed their entire confidence in them. We, ourselves, as our readers will recollect, have shown a disposition to take a favourable view of his work, at the same time not concealing our opinion that it was required by M. Chaillu's own reputation that he should afford additional corroboration of some of his assertions; and agreeing in the truth of the charge brought against him by Mr. Gray, that some of the illustrations in his book, which were alleged to be original, were undoubtedly copies from previous publications.

We have, perhaps, luckily for ourselves, no knowledge of the spirit in which M. Chaillu took our review of his work; but the manner in which he has met other critics certainly shows that his sojourn in Africa has imbued him with no small portion of the ferocity of the animals and the manners of the natives with whom he there made acquaintance. At the Ethnological Society on Tuesday last a gentleman of the name of Malone made observations on his work which were certainly not favourable to it, but which were at the same time only such as every author renders himself liable to by the mere fact of publication. There is no principle more undeniable than that the moment a man becomes an author, he becomes, *quoad* his book, a public character, and he is no more entitled to take criticisms on his book as personal affronts, much less to make them pretexts for outrages, than a Minister whose measures are opposed or an orator whose speeches are replied to in Parliament.

We read, therefore, with feelings in which disgust predominates even over astonishment, that M. Chaillu's mode of reply to Mr. Malone's arguments was to spit in his face. Fortunately for him contempt so mastered every other feeling in Mr. Malone's breast that he abstained from taking the law into his own hands, as many men of warmer tempers would have done, and was content to place himself under the protection of the president. But his gentlemanly forbearance only makes it more imperative on those whose office it is to indicate the public feeling to denounce conduct which is doubly disgraceful, as being at once ruffianly and stupid. On its ruffianism we need not dilate; its stupidity is plain from the fact that such conduct throws greater doubt on the truth of the statements contained in his book than all Dr. Gray's and Mr. Malone's arguments. That cause must, indeed, be weak that, in the opinion of the person most interested, is most fitly supported by impotent outrage; and before the termination of the controversy which his volume has provoked, M. Chaillu will, we doubt not, feel abundant reason to regret that he has forfeited all claim to the courtesy which was at first accorded to him as a foreigner, and to the favour which seemed his due as a man of ability and energy, by conduct which is never heard of amongst gentlemen, and which can only be tolerated among the coarsest and most degraded of mankind.



## FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

## PARIS.

I HAVE more than once told you that the cerebral system of the Minister of the Interior is absolutely deranged by his visions of plots and plotters on all sides. He is for arresting and prosecuting everybody, and has no peace or ease when any fancied conspirator is still roaming about at large, unseized, untracked, unimprisoned! One of his present difficulties is how to lay hands on a very famous Dominican friar, by name the Père Minjard; as to merely laying hands on him, that might not be so hard of achievement, but it is more than that which M. de Persigny wants. The reverend father has committed a grievous offence—all Paris knows it; but that is of no avail, for the proof—the *corpus delicti*—is wanting, and no one will help M. de Persigny. These are the circumstances of the case:—The Père Minjard is a Dominican who sprang into fame last year during Lent. The *Carême* of 1860 had opened, and the preacher who was to preach at the Madeleine fell ill. The curé of the parish wrote to Father Lacordaire to ask for a *prédicateur* in all haste, as no time was to be lost. There was sent a young monk, of whom no one knew anything, and to hear whom of course, therefore, no one went at first. He had not preached, however, three times, before all Paris rang with the name of the Père Minjard, and rightly enough, it must be admitted, for more genuine eloquence never flowed from the pulpit, nor a stranger species of eloquence either. It was a perfect torrent, the words so crowded on each other, borne onwards by the rush of ideas, that the voice could scarce find utterance for them—and then, too, it was so fresh, so young, so unconventional. There was something sincere and earnest about it. Soon the crowds that thronged the church of the Madeleine to listen to this monk of twenty-six years old were so dense, that positively human beings clustered round the high altar, and clambered up the cornices like bees. Well, the Père Minjard ended his *Carême*, and returned to his "establishment" in the provinces, and the noise died away, and the impression he had made was effaced. But a very short time back, a charity sermon had to be preached for the Poles—a politico-charitable sermon. The committee bethought them of the Père Minjard, and to the Père Minjard they wrote, and the Père Minjard came, and the Poles were preached for. Tremendous was the success, but somehow or other there came to the watchful ears of M. le Ministre de l'Intérieur most unpleasant echoes from this said sermon for the Poles.

The word "Saviour" had jarred (and not wrongly) on the religious sense of the youthful preacher, and he had not been sparing of his reproof. "That word," he would appear to have exclaimed, "is a sacred word—it is not to be profaned! it is only applicable to one person—to our Lord! it is not to be misused and misapplied." So far so good, and this could hardly have been laid hold of; but the Père Minjard did not stop there. He is reported to have said that "now-a-days, every petty tyrant took to himself the credit of having saved somebody or something," to have inveighed against all "deliverers of society" generally, and to have ended by this phrase:—"To assume to have saved society in these days of ours, it is sufficient to have taken society by surprise—to have committed a *coup d'état*—or to have even made a great fuss or noise, like the geese of the capitol, who also gained the reputation of having 'saved' Rome!"

This was more than M. de Persigny could endure. He immediately instituted inquiries, which were vain; no one would tell him anything—no one would betray the Père Minjard. What was to be done? All at once some wretched antechamber gossip brought to the ears of the Minister the welcome news that a copy of the sermon existed! It was a stenographic copy, said to have been prepared expressly for the use of Prince Adam Czartoryski. Here, indeed, was something tangible; so off went the Ministerial agents to the abode of Prince Czartoryski, and stated their hope of receiving from him the so much desired document! But the result was not such as M. de Persigny had anticipated; the Prince flew into a great rage (as well he might), and, in a few words, expounded to the persons who had honoured him with a visit, that if he had the document alluded to in his possession, the very last thing he should do would be to give it up!

From him, the officials went to his son, where their reception is described as having been still worse!—and there the matter rests. M. de Persigny avows himself defeated for the moment; but he is still casting about, and will probably yet find some means of tormenting the Père Minjard.

Great has been the excitement here over the very extraordinary allocution of Victor Emmanuel to the Roman Deputies, as related in the *Journal des Débats*, and immense is the scandal, both of righteous and unrighteous, at the free and easy way in which France is treated by the king *galantuomo*. And of a truth, it is a curious mode of proceeding upon the face of it, and does put a Government into an odd position. Here is the Minister for Foreign Affairs, who solemnly writes a despatch, and lays it down as certain that it is the will of France, and of her master (and his) the Emperor, to continue the "protection" of the Eternal City and of the Head of the Church, as far as one can make out, even unto the end of time,—for no limitation whatever is so much as hinted at. This France accepts and understands, and finds, on the whole, rather agreeable, for it is consistent with what she calls her "historical traditions," and, on the whole, it suits her. But suddenly she hears of the chief of the "House of Savoy"—as he still is sometimes styled (though where that "house" now is would be hard to define)—receiving a deputation from Rome, and coolly advising the persons composing it "not to mind what France says!"

This is assuredly a singular proceeding, to say the least of it, and recalls to one's mind a circumstance much talked of at the period of the Treaty of Villafranca, and which was as follows:—When the French army of occupation left Milan, the King invited the French officers very hospitably upon several occasions to his table. Just after one of these repasts, a very well known general officer of the French army had a conversation with Victor Emmanuel upon the stipulations of the treaty, and the tone of his remarks went, perhaps, somewhat to indicate that he thought the manner in which Piedmont had (or rather had not) carried out that treaty was not exactly respectful for so excellent an ally as imperial France! "I see what is your thought, General," said the King, frankly; "but no sooner had the last preliminaries of what was to become the Treaty of Zurich been ostensibly settled, than I received a telegram from the Emperor, telling me I might do what I chose—*faites comme si de rien n'était!*" These were the words the King repeated

as having been those of the imperial telegram. This anecdote was at the time universally talked of, for the personage to whom it was told was not one likely to keep it to himself, and accordingly it ran over Paris like a flame, but has been forgotten since.

To whom these arts and wiles are a benefit it would be really difficult to say; but for one thing I would almost answer, namely, that they do not tend to increase the Emperor's consideration in the army. Most Frenchmen are, perhaps, by nature indifferent to precise accuracy of assertion; but if this is less the case in one portion of society than in another, it is in the army, and these intrigues and deceptions, so gratuitous and apparently useless, are extremely distasteful throughout the entire army. They say generally: "Remain in Rome, or leave Rome; either will suit us; but do not say you are going to leave Rome at the moment when you are planning to stay there; and do not choose the very time when you have resolved to leave, for declaring that you intend to stay!" These are the reasons for which Victor Emmanuel's speech has made such a disagreeable effect. It throws too full a light on official declarations.

## SKETCHES FROM THE HOUSE.

BY THE SILENT MEMBER.

THERE must be in Ireland several Historical Debating Societies. Dublin, Belfast, and Cork have at various times sent us young orators, stamped with the same unmistakable die. They select the same elegant themes, use the same elegant gestures, conclude with the same elegant perorations, and sit down with the same elegant air. In their choice of topics they prefer foreign countries, and of these the more romantic nationalities, such as Poland, Hungary, Italy, and Greece. Their graceful aspirations, until the other day, were always enlisted on the side of liberty, and against despotism. Now they revere the memory of King Bomba, and wonder why the Romans hate with such inextinguishable hatred the mild and paternal rule of the tiara and the red hats. The young orator's themes and opinions may vary, but the neatness of his sentences and the grace of his gestures remain the same—the former, sooth to say, not unsuggestive of the midnight lamp; nor the latter of the judiciously placed mirror. The display in a proper arena, and under a suitable roof would not be uninteresting, reminding the most churlish of his own youth and of certain college yearnings. But in the House of Commons the whole thing has an unreal aspect. It is artificial as a painted ship upon a painted ocean.

The resource of the English squire and the Scottish merchant against the graceful Irish orator is that great Parliamentary institution, the "count out." Yet this expedient sometimes fails. The young ex-collegian fastens upon you in Supply with some matter of no more practical moment than the question "whether Oliver Cromwell shall have a statue?" Here he has the House by the button. The Government, like the wedding guest in the "Ancient Mariner," cannot choose but hear, although, like him, they beat their breasts and chafe with impatience. Sometimes the Irish M.P. courageously takes his chance on a Members' night. We fly to the count-out, as to a sure friend in this time of need. The division-bell, however, evokes a score of the orator's compatriots from the smoking-room, who, for the honour of "ould Ireland," make a House for the young man, and for their own comfort and convenience leave the House the moment the Speaker exclaims "Forty," to relight the extinct cigar and find (if it may be) the hastily-left glass of cold whiskey and water.

Mr. Pope Hennessy is our greatest celebrity of the historical debating school. Italy has hitherto been his favourite theme this year. On Tuesday it was Poland. Some little discrepancy was observable in his language in regard to the two countries. In the affairs of Poland the hon. member urges the principle of nationality; in Italy he opposes it. In Poland he is the friend of liberty and representative institutions; in Italy he is the defender of despotic governments. The grievous wrongs inflicted by Russia upon Poland have his warmest sympathy. The tyranny of Austrian rule in the Italian peninsula, and the horrors of Neapolitan dungeons, extort from him no syllable of denunciation. His sympathies are perverse. His hatred of despotism is geographical. His heart warms to the Poles; it freezes to the Italians. Can there be a cause for this? Why does Mr. Hennessy exclaim against the partition of Poland in an oratorical exercitation, to which the walls of the Historical Society have already echoed, and forget those cognate harangues in favour of Italian unity, which he would have found in the next pigeon-hole?

The answer is, I fear, only too obvious. The Czar is not a Roman Catholic sovereign. If he were, Mr. Hennessy would take off his hat to him, would respectfully salute him, would praise the mildness of his sway, and would exhaust all the fervour of the Irish vocabulary in denouncing his revolutionary and rebellious subjects. Another reason may be, that Mr. Hennessy, having figured of late as the ultramontane apologist of tyranny in Italy, and having unutterably disgusted English and Scotch members by his servility to the worst part of the Irish priesthood, wishes to gain a little credit for Liberal sympathies with an oppressed continental people. He is not altogether absolutist in his tastes. He has to draw the line somewhere, like the barber in Charles Dickens' story, and he draws it at the Greek priest. So, on Friday, Garibaldi is a brigand and Victor Emmanuel a murderer and usurper, and on the Tuesday following the Czar is preferred to the same "bad eminence." In every country where mass is said (except Ireland) tyranny cannot exist. The inhabitants of the Papal States complain of tyranny, but they are not to be believed though they should rebel, and make all the demonstrations and sacrifices which, in the case of Poland, excite Mr. Pope Hennessy's unbounded sympathy and admiration. But enough of Historical Society eloquence, and the consistency of Irish Ultramontanists, Liberal and Conservative. One reflection, and I have done. Ireland will be impracticable, lost to progress, the foe to civil and religious liberty, a "thorn in the side of England," until the Pope loses his temporal power. When French bayonets are withdrawn, and Cavour's dream of Rome as the capital of Italy is realized,—when the Pope's power is acknowledged to be no longer of this world,—Irish Roman Catholics may again become Liberal, and may aid the victims over other despotisms beside Russia.

Respectable old myth, that the redress of grievances ought to precede supply! what have you in common with an Irishman's abuse of Garibaldi,



with Baillie Cochrane's hatred of Civil Service Education, or the hundred and one impertinences that, like the fly in amber, are found upon the Supply paper? Our noble viscount sleeps through it all with imperturbable indifference. But can this be "leading the House?" While our noble viscount sleeps away the hours nothing is done. Must it not ever be a strong impeachment of his administration that he suffers a cloud of bores to occupy the time given to the Government, and makes no attempt to drive them away? Our noble viscount is the best listener in the world, but a quality so useful and so seldom found in perfection in the social circle, is anything but a virtue in a Prime Minister, responsible for the conduct of public business, and above all for the reputation of the House of Commons. The evil has been steadily increasing every year of our noble viscount's administration. Now and then, when the mischief has been done, and the session irretrievably wasted, he makes a faint and feeble show of remonstrance. But I must confidently assert that anything like a vigorous and energetic stand against the practice of interposing unimportant and frivolous motions on going into Supply I never heard from our noble viscount.

The practice has not even antiquity and immemorial usage to recommend it. I have heard Tom Duncombe relate that more than once when he proposed to intervene between the House and Supply, Manners Sutton, then Speaker, interposed, on the ground that any such motion must be not only one of great importance, but, further, one of great urgency. Now urgency is never thought of; and, as each Member is allowed to be the judge of the importance of his own hobby, a Government Supply night has come to be regarded as common waste, a species of No Man's Land, which any squatter may settle upon and appropriate.

Almost all our statesmen have sacrificed and fallen down before the brazen idol. Disraeli, Russell, and our noble Viscount have spoken it fair. They have "trusted to the good sense of the House" to prevent the multiplication of motions on Supply nights. Pakington and Bouverie, on the other hand, have protested against relying on this broken reed, and have manfully done battle against the abuse. Lord John Russell, when he was Prime Minister, admitted that the Government had less and less time for the necessary business of the Session; but apologetically remarked that as a greater number of Members paid attention to public business, it was to be expected speeches would multiply. But *sum cuique*. Members have their nights, and the Government theirs.

Let independent members make what use they will of their own time. Let debates be adjourned from day to day, when members wish to fly their hawk at a fair quarry. But a Government cannot be systematically robbed of its time, which is also the time of the public, without neglecting some necessary business of legislation. The "Massacre of the Innocents" has not yet begun, for there seem none to slay; yet the Session will add its quota to bills postponed and deferred for want of time. I would not give much for the chance of the Highways Bill this Session. I seem also to remember two promises in the Queen's speech,—one of a bill for the Reform of the Law of Bankruptcy, the other of a measure to Facilitate the Transfer of Land. The state of public business has not yet permitted the introduction of the latter bill. Will any one pretend that bushels of motions, such as we have had on going into Committee of Supply, are worth a well-devised and carefully-considered measure for simplifying the title and cheapening the cost of conveyance of the land of the entire kingdom? Let Patter and Chatter betake themselves to the Tower Hamlets, King's County, Cork County, and where else they resort, and ask their constituents whether they have ever said anything in the whole course of their lives to compensate for the legislation they have traversed and hindered.

There is a rumour that the Church Rates question is likely to be settled this session, by Mr. Cross's compromise.

Parliament does not seem likely to be prorogued before the 10th of August.

Sir R. Bethell's elevation to the woolsack has given great and general satisfaction in the House of Commons. He is "the right man in the right place,"—the round peg that, wonderful to relate, has not been put into a square hole, but has found a circular perforation which it fits to a nicety.

#### BOAT-BUILDING BY MACHINERY.

MR. THOMPSON'S system of boat-building by machinery, which has just been introduced to the British public, is one of the most ingenious applications of labour-saving machines we have yet seen. We have been so accustomed to find Brother Jonathan supersede skilled labour by clever mechanical appliances, that we cease to wonder at any new contrivance, and are quite prepared to find human fingers improved by him off the face of the earth. The sewing-machine laughs to scorn the fingers of the sempstress; the labour-saving machinery of Springfield enables us to manufacture every portion of the Enfield rifle, without the intervention of the human hand; we reap and mow by the tireless muscles of iron, instead of those of flesh and blood; and our own Babbage shows us how to calculate by machinery; yet we question if any great branch of human industry seemed less likely to be invaded by iron limbs than the handicraft of the boat-builder. When we are told that a cutter, 30 feet in length and of 25 tons burthen, can be turned out by machinery in five and a-half hours, we have a right to feel incredulous. Why, a toy boat would take longer. Moreover, the application of rigid machinery to such a matter seems incomprehensible. In the lines of a boat, not two curves are alike, and at every step the intelligence of the workman would seem called upon to meet the varying conditions of the task before him; yet this is just the handicraft the ingenious New York mechanic has undertaken to whip out of the field, and we must say he has succeeded in proving that he can do so.

The factory in which this process is shown at work is situated in the wilds of Bow; and in addition to this disadvantage, there is only one man to work the different machines. Consequently, it gives no adequate idea of the speed with which the different portions of the boat can be manufactured, when the factory is in full work, and the principle of minute division of labour is carried out by each mechanic working at its limited task. At present there is a great loss of time in these experimental trials, as the man has to leave one machine for another; but the visitors can see quickly enough that the different cutters driven by steam beat the efforts of skilled labour;

and, what is of some importance in these days of trades unions combinations, the work can be produced under the superintendence of persons of very average ability. There are, we believe, in the naval service twenty-four different patterns of boats, and in the mercantile marine fifteen. The machinery is calculated to produce any of these patterns, the appliances being adjustable to any size up to that of a yacht of a hundred tons. Every portion of the boat is thus made, and hand labour is only employed in putting together the different portions which fit quite accurately. Another advantage of Mr. Thompson's method is, that as the different parts are made in exact duplicate, they are at any time interchangeable; and, in case of damage to any portion of a boat, a new piece can be put in without the necessity of the ship carpenter's labour. Immense fleets of boats may be packed up and transported from place to place like so many bedsteads, and then put together again by unskilled persons.

It is no easy matter to give the general reader an idea of the working of complex machines, indeed it is an almost impossible task. We must content ourselves, therefore, with noticing the more prominent appliances by which the fifty and upward distinct operations are carried on. At the very outset our ideas of a boat-builder's shop are completely violated by the absence of the ordinary tools. Where are the adzes, hammers, saws, and planes we usually meet with in such places? Instead of them a few tables are dotted about here and there, made of maple or other dark woods, looking more like pieces of furniture than benches. On these work circular saws or odd-looking cutters, projecting at an angle from the centre. Powerful nondescript machines loom in the background. Segments of huge barrels, with moveable hoops, for such they appear to be, puzzle the uninitiated. The circular saw and the simple cutter seem the only instruments employed to perform so many diverse operations. The first machine we saw put in action cut the planks to the exact size and bevel it was required to take, when fixed upon the ribs. Another machine took it within its teeth, and hollowed out one side, whilst it gave the other its convex form. Another machine rebated and bearded the keel in a manner which the highest skilled labour would have failed to have performed. The "Drunken Saw" will excite the admiration of the visitors; by simply fixing a circular saw out of its true plane, it cuts with astounding rapidity grooves of any width; this simple application of a well known tool is used in making the trellis-work or grating, which is placed fore and aft in man-of-war boats. In the course of five minutes a yard of this trellis-work was made and put together by one man. The bending of the ribs was the next operation proceeded with. They are steamed in the ordinary way, and then they are placed on the solid blocks before likened to segments of barrels or rather of cones, for these shapes so vary that a number of different degrees of curvature can be got off each block. To the circumference of this block the rib is bent, and retained there by a band of iron. It is then placed in the drying-room, and in an hour it will be fixed in the curve it is desired to take.

There is a machine to plane the ribs on three sides at once, and when all the different parts are completed, an assembling form, for holding them together while they are fastened in the usual way by bolts and screws; this last operation of fastening is the only one done by manual labour.

Mr. Thompson tells us that he can erect sufficient machinery in a space 300 feet long and 150 wide, to produce 6,000 boats a year, or three times the number now manufactured in the three kingdoms by hand labour. With true Yankee sharpness, the inventor hints at the tremendous advantage the possession of the sole patent for these machines would confer on any maritime power having an aggressive turn. There is, no doubt, something in this; but we cannot help reflecting for a moment on the tremendous aggressive force possessed by any man of ingenuity and perseverance over the old handicrafts of the country; while communities of workmen, whose occupations were heretofore considered safe heir-looms to the end of time, are, one by one, vanishing before the subtle combinations of the scheming machinist. Howe, the American, with his little sewing machine, has not only commenced the rout of whole classes of tailors, but of shoemakers, sempstresses, and harness-makers. Dr. Dalglish, with his bread-making machine, will sound the first note of the flight of the unwholesome hardworking bakers. The gun-making machines at present employed at Enfield must ultimately destroy the trade of the skilled armourer of Birmingham.

It is sad to think that whole classes of skilled workmen may be thrown out of employ by the invention of some ingenious machine, or some subtle application of chemistry. The silver-platers of Sheffield possibly thought theirs would be a staple for ever, when lo! a little blue spurt of electricity at once takes the bread out of their mouths, and scatters the plating-trade in all directions. This same blue spurt of electricity has already begun to undermine the very feet of our errand boys, and where it will end the labour market little dreams. That society gains by all machinery which helps us to produce cheaply is admitted, but it cannot be denied that individuals suffer just in proportion as the community is enriched. Craftsmen who have spent their lives in acquiring skill in any particular line, cannot turn their hands profitably to any new occupation, and consequently every successful labour-saving machine is a source of great suffering to a few. If our social philosophers could in any way manage to soften the painful transitions which are now perpetually taking place in the labour market, they would accomplish a great good. We must all admit the truth of Jeremy Bentham's proposition, of "The greatest happiness for the greatest number," but humanity revolts at the idea of purchasing its infinitesimal blessings at the price of the starvation of its units.

These reflections are suggested by Mr. Thompson's idea that his invention will at once sweep away the greater part of the boat-building trade of the country. We know that, happily, new inventions are not adopted in quite such a hurry as inventors could wish, but there is a tendency, we must admit, to more rapid changes in this direction,—there are less prejudices against machinery on the part of masters, and, consequently, we can foresee increased suffering for the men. Looking at Mr. Thompson's invention in a commercial point of view, there can be little doubt, we think, of its success. If we are not misinformed, our Admiralty have at once given in, and boat-building by machinery will relieve our national ship-yards of one branch of their labour. If this is the case, we may feel pretty sure that the mercantile marine will not be far behind, and that the handicraft of the boat-builder is doomed.



## THE FRENCH ARMY.—PROVISIONS AND COOKERY.—IV.

It is not enough that the soldier, along with being intelligent and educated, should be also skilled in athletic exercises, and inured to fatigue. Another and equally important portion of his instruction still remains to be completed—he must be taught how to live, for unless the physical force be sustained, all other qualifications, mental or personal, become valueless. It is, therefore, above all things, necessary to habituate him to provide for his own wants—to accustom him to select, purchase, and prepare his own food, so that he may be capable of choosing the most profitable portions of the meat; of estimating its fair marketable value in quarters during peace, and then of rendering it wholesome and palatable, by good cookery, when on active service in the field. To this end, and no doubt also with the view of preventing fraud or misappropriation, there are no contracts for the supply of provisions to the French army in time of peace, or while remaining in garrison within its own territory. Flour for the ammunition bread is purchased by the "Intendance Militaire," which, in time of war, takes charge of all supplies, and the bread is made by the bakers of the regiment—ovens being constructed for that purpose in every place of consideration. A corporal and two soldiers of each company go daily round the different shops to purchase bread, meat, and vegetables for the soup. The men select and bargain for those articles, the corporal never interfering in the transaction; the bargain concluded, he pays the price agreed upon, and takes the vendor's receipt in presence of the soldiers. The whole of what is termed the soldier's pay is appropriated, in the first instance, to his support; and unless living be cheap indeed, he has nothing for his amusement or indulgence except what he can economize from the sous or two sous a day of the flank companies. As the maximum sum to be expended never varies (except in Paris and Lyons), it follows as a matter of course that the quantity of meat and vegetables used is increased or diminished, according to the supply in the market, and the prices which rule there. In some districts, and at certain seasons, the necessities of life are cheaper or dearer than at others, and to meet those variations in price, the quantities purchased must vary according to the means of the soldier. Half a pound of white bread is always provided for the soup, besides the pound and a half of ammunition bread given gratuitously, so that by this means each man has thirty-six ounces English of good bread for his daily consumption. The minimum quantity of meat is 250 grammes (nine English ounces). When the pay is inadequate to procure this, an augmentation is granted by the government. The maximum allowance is one pound, which is divided into two portions, the soup being made twice a day. The men of each company take their turn in the kitchen—one as cook, another as "homme de corvée," or "scullery-boy," the scullery-boy of one day becoming cook the next, and so on in rotation; thus all are in turns habituated to the due preparation of the meat and vegetables for the soup, and to the proper method of dressing them. On one day in each week (generally Thursday), there is a made dish, or haricot of mutton, which partially breaks the monotony of the ordinary diet.

The ability to prepare his own food is a qualification very essential to the soldier; and it is in this very qualification that our troops, when on service, are found to be particularly deficient. Yet instead of being instructed in the art of cookery at the camp of Aldershot, as they should be, we see the newspapers occasionally filled with the description and result of the experimental trials of ambulatory cooking machines, capable of preparing food for whole divisions of an army. Those machines, no doubt, have their merits. They may be very economical in quarters, and would be very convenient for a review at Hounslow Heath or Hyde Park; but their utility on active service and in face of an enemy is very problematical indeed, while their employment at home deprives the soldier, in time of peace, of the only opportunity afforded him of acquiring a practical knowledge of cookery. It is easy to conceive what grave inconveniences might arise if the machines on which troops depended for their dinners broke down, or were captured by the enemy—or if, in the hurry of an advance or retreat, they were left too far distant for the hungry soldiers to reach them—or if, in fine, the corps to which they were attached happened to be acting in a country too difficult for their access. It is obvious that, with the best arrangements, and under the most favourable circumstances, the soldier engaged in war must frequently be exposed to the necessity of relying on his own resources; and the only certain way to obviate the evils which, in such cases, are sure to arise from his inexperience, is to teach him how to act independently of all auxiliary appliances. They tell a story of a Zouave having been asked his opinion of the English soldiers after the Crimean campaign. "Ah," said he, "set them down in an engagement ready prepared and well fed, and no men can fight better; but let them get into misery or distress, and no men know less how to get themselves out of it. *Par exemple*, our battalion was encamped beside an English regiment, which had a magnificent buck-goat; the cavalry horses of their army had no forage, and the poor beast, getting no food, sickened and died. At this time the soldiers he belonged to were without rations to eat, or fire to warm themselves with; and what do you think they did? why they collected some boards, made a coffin, and buried the buck. My comrade and myself, shocked at such a waste of good things, took the poor animal up that same night; *parole d'honneur*, we had three good fires from his coffin, delicious messes from his flesh for seven days, and for the rest of the campaign we slept upon his skin, which kept us from damp, and saved us from sickness. Now what can you think of the English soldier after such a piece of folly as that? I have my cat, I carry him on my sack, and he comes under fire with me, as you may perceive, from his having lost a fore-foot. I love and nourish him, and he in return will, should there be a necessity, provide me with two days' good living."

Corporal punishment is never had recourse to in the French service, everything calculated to degrade the soldier in his own eyes or in the estimation of others, and thus mar his future prospects, being carefully avoided. He is by the annals of the army taught to regard himself as one who may be destined hereafter to fill the highest grade in his profession; and from the moment he joins his sense of honour is sedulously fostered, he is taught to consider himself as the equal of any man, and to resent insult should it be offered, by recourse to arms. The duel is forbidden amongst officers, although the breach of the official rule is always overlooked, unless fatal consequences ensue, and thus force the transgression upon the notice of the regimental authorities. Amongst the soldiers it is not only tolerated but enforced; and

its enforcement is found to be most efficacious in preventing the many quarrels likely to arise amongst accumulated bodies of men. Every one must condemn the unchristian practice of duelling; but there can be no doubt that the dread of being called to personal account for his misconduct often deters the bully and the ruffian from perpetrating those practical jokes, which are but too frequent in our army, where the persons who have recourse to such cowardly means of annoyance escape with impunity by sheltering themselves under "the rules of the service." Should a blow be given, the disputants must fight—as a matter of course with the weapons of their regiment; that is to say, if infantry, with the small sword; if cavalry with the sabre,—the colonel being consulted by those willing for the combat, or ordering those who may be indisposed to have recourse to the "ultima ratio," to do so. Two seconds, or witnesses, as the French term them, are chosen on each side to see fair play, and the duel proceeds. When the cause of quarrel is not of a very grave description, the "Maitre d'Armes" is generally present as umpire, and interferes to arrest the combat, when he considers the honour of the parties engaged sufficiently vindicated.

The man who refuses to fight after having given or received an insult, is punished by confinement in the "Salle de Police" by order of his colonel, and branded as a coward by his comrades. Such cases, however, are rare indeed. The "Maitre d'Armes," an important regimental personage, is not indebted to his military superiors for advancement to the position which he holds, he is elected by the society of "Maitres des Armes," which in the French Army forms a recognized guild or confraternity, enjoying the privilege of selecting its own members, without being controlled by any other authority. When a soldier who desires this appointment is considered duly qualified by his regimental instructor, he applies for a "concours," or meeting of all the "Maitres des Armes" who may happen to be in the garrison where he is stationed. On arriving at the "salle," the candidate is presented to the assembled magnates by his professor, and modestly requests a trial of skill with the "Doyen," or senior of those present. Acquitting himself well on this occasion, his qualifications are tested by as many others of those forming the "concours" as may desire to put his capacity to further proof; and should the ordeal be successfully passed through, he receives a diploma on vellum, regularly signed and attested, of which the following is a copy:—

Glorious  
to  
God.

"We, 'Maitres des Armes,' constituting part of the garrison of Strasbourg, having tested the capacity of Seignur Jaques Delaval, of the 60th Regiment of the Line, acknowledge his abilities, and have received him as 'Maitre d'Armes,' in faith of which we grant him this 'Brevet,'—in consequence whereof our brethren, the 'Maitres des Armes,' are to lend him aid and assistance on all occasions when he merits their esteem and friendship."

Honour  
to  
Arms.

Those who are obliged to await a vacancy for promotion, after having received their brevet, are, during the interval, styled "Prévôts."

The first offences of the soldier are punished by confinement in the "Salle de Police;" should he persevere in his misconduct, and become incorrigible under this lenient mode of correction, he is brought before a court consisting of a "chef de bataillon," two captains, two lieutenants, and two sous-lieutenants, who hear the accusation and defence; should a conviction follow, he is by their decision transferred to the "Compagnies de discipline," which always remain in the colonies, and never enter France. The duration of his punishment depends upon himself; after one year's continuous good conduct he is allowed again to rejoin his regiment, but should he persevere in his insubordination, he is transferred from the "Compagnie de discipline" to the "Pioneers," where he is much more harshly treated, and where he must remain until the conclusion of his term of service. He then receives his discharge, written on yellow paper, and this disqualifies him from ever receiving any description of public employment. The men composing these companies are never armed, unless in cases of the most urgent necessity. They perform no military duty, but labour, as do our convicts, on the construction of roads, and in the military arsenals. The officers who command them are specially selected for their firmness of character and determination, and in numbers they are double those attached to the troops of the line.

In no service is discipline more strictly enforced than in the French; and yet it is maintained solely by these means, without having recourse to the barbarous and brutalizing punishment of flogging. It is almost certain that a man—ready to risk the consequences of misconduct, when he knows that fifty lashes is the maximum which can be inflicted upon him, accompanied, perhaps, by a few months' confinement in a model prison, where, in his degraded estimation, he leads an easier life, and is much better fed than if performing duty with his regiment—might still hesitate to transgress if he found that transportation for the rest of the term of his service, with really hard work in a tropical climate, and without the luxurious diet provided for our malefactors, surely awaited him. Would it not then be well for our Government to adopt a system so eminently successful? The lash is found to be ineffectual in our army, and cannot, in the face of public opinion, be much longer used; and confinement for fixed periods in the county gaols has proved a failure; why, then, should there not be colonial corps, condemned to perpetual banishment, to which refractory soldiers might be sent for punishment, not for any particular length of time, but for just so long as they persevered in their evil courses, and from which they might at any time emancipate themselves, as in the French system, by a year's continuous good conduct? A British soldier sentenced to transportation for military offences is mixed up with the mass of convicts, containing persons who have committed the most disgusting or heinous crimes; and in such society his amendment can scarcely be expected. The French soldier, under the same description of punishment, is kept aloof from such contamination, and is only brought in contact with those who, though like himself guilty of grave military misconduct, are yet undebauched by moral depravity, and his restoration to his former position, dependent as it is entirely on himself, may not unreasonably be anticipated. A fixed period of imprisonment is objectionable, not only because it takes away all hope of release for the specified time, but because the offender knows that he must be enlarged at its expiration, and therefore troubles himself little as to amendment.

It is true that with us punishments are often remitted, either under the pressure of public opinion or on the recommendation of the authorities who superintend their infliction; but the prisoner calculates little on what depends upon the pleasure or caprice of those who have the power, if they have the will, to assist him; he feels that he possesses no right to claim his



liberation; and he has no incentive to urge him to such an amelioration of conduct as would deserve it. Nothing, as experience teaches, can be more subversive of discipline than the infliction of punishments on one day which are reversed the next, either because they have enlisted public sympathy in favour of the convicted person, or because they are found, on reflection, to be excessive; for in such cases the transgressor attributes his liberation to causes which will secure him future impunity for similar acts, and profits nothing by the lesson taught him. The French system effectually obviates this objection, by making the convict's release, or indefinite punishment, altogether dependent upon himself.

#### WOVEN WIND.

It will not at first be easy for the reader to discover the connection between the pound weight of raw cotton, which we declare to be the subject of this paper, and the above heading—"Woven Wind." The former is, as the French say, all that there is of most visible, ponderable, and tangible; the latter no one certainly has ever seen, or weighed, or touched. Our senses tell us that the former is a white fuzzy mass, about the size of a man's head; the imagination strives in vain to realize the latter, perhaps by idealizing the visible impression made by some semi-detached cobweb streaming in the air. Granted, that our pound weight has its uses, still it has a commonplace savour; our metaphor, on the contrary, is redolent of Arabian romance, and is rounded by Oriental grandiloquence. Yet the fuzzy mass may be converted into a fabric for which "woven wind" is scarcely a misnomer, and the more commonplace uses of the material may be merged in the wonderful transformations of which it is susceptible.

The particular marvels of which we now treat are, firstly, the great fineness of which the single thread may be spun; secondly, the delicacy of the fabric which may be woven of that thread. We will not enlarge upon the various processes undergone by our pound weight during the period necessary for its due extenuation; or show how, with very little human superintendence, it is gradually wound, first into rope, then from thicker rope to thinner, and so on till it has dwindled to the necessary tenuity. One might almost be led to fancy that there is an intelligence and a will at work inside some of the ungainly machines, as one watches them receiving and absorbing the wool on one side, only to evolve it on the other in the above mentioned ropes, and, unaided, pour them coil on coil into the tall cans placed ready to receive them. These iron men—we borrow the phrase—require no rest, faint in no atmosphere, however tainted, crave no food but that which steam provides them; day and night, summer and winter alike, they revolve and grind and rattle on.

However, it is not with them, nor even with the spindle, which deals with the material in its later stages, that we have to do. It is with the results to which the several machines successively contribute. The degree of fineness eventually obtained by the yarn is estimated by the number of hanks, of 840 yards each, spun out of a pound weight of wool. For example, 300's would mean that the pound was spun into 300 hanks of that length, and so on. Of course, the finer the thread the greater would be the number of hanks. In mere fine spinning, without reference to the subsequent weaving, we believe that the British operative is confessedly unsurpassed. Had we space we could cite countless proofs of this; as it is, we will name but one, which all might, and many may have seen. In the Great Exhibition of 1851 there were some marvellous specimens, in short lengths of 2,150's. That is, in this case, the pound afforded material for 2,150 times 840 yards of yarn. We will try to give the reader some idea of what this would amount to. He has possibly made the journey from London to Aberdeen. If he have he will remember how the sense of its great length grew upon him through the uneasy naps of the night, was confirmed when he woke up, haggard and bleary-eyed, in the morning, and finally settled into dogged despair as a second day waned, and his destination appeared still far distant. Well, suppose it to be possible to join all these lengths made out of one single pound weight, into one continuous thread, he might take hold of one end of it, on entering the train at Euston-square, go to Aberdeen and back, "paying-out" the yarn all the way; and, finally, when returned to London, join the end in his hand to the other end left at home, from which it had never been severed. The whole length will have measured double the distance between the two places, rather over 1,000 miles. He will begin to think that he has at last arrived at a practical explanation of the geometrical definition of a line, length without breadth.

"But spinning fine single threads, as mere curiosities, is all very well," you may say. Cotton threads, when woven, are quite another thing. Are we not justified in looking upon these fabrics as the commonest of the common? Are they fit for aught else but for making up into the gown, which even the house-maid of the period will, let her mistress say what she may, exchange for the more decorous silk? For plying the hearthstone on early door-steps, or watching the joint as it spits and frizzles before the fire, it may have certain uses; but, as they say in the Parliament-house, we have yet to learn what connection it can have with your "Woven Winds and Arabian Nights' Metaphors." Madam (the rapidity and universality of your inferences justifies us in deciding that you are of the gentle sex), we beg to tell you, that you are fighting us on the very ground which we should have ourselves selected. Perhaps you do not very much care whether the hand-thrown shuttle of the Hindoo, or the power-loom of Great Britain, bear the palm in weaving fine yarn. Nor is it in your eyes very material, that not long since some 600's, spun by Mr. Bazley, of Manchester, had to be sent to Dacca to be woven, after being given up by the men of Paisley. What you maintain, if we understand you rightly, is that a cotton gown is a cotton gown all the world over, and can no more be made a fine thing of than (pardon our vulgarity) a sow's ear can be turned into a silk purse. As a vehicle for a dose—a very little dose—of figures, we will tell you a story illustrative of the fact, that a cotton gown is not always a cotton gown, at least in the sense you mean.

There was an Eastern Emperor, called Aurungzebe. "Once upon a time" must do for his date, and the Indies will denote, without exactly limiting, the seat of his empire. What is more to our purpose, he had a daughter. One afternoon, when this young lady entered the imperial presence, the monarch waxed wroth at what he conceived to be an undue disclosure of her

charms, her dress was so very thin. "Be off," cried he to the Zenana, "put on more clothes, and make yourself decent. The daughter, wilful as daughters even now are, demurred to this. As the scene lay in India, it was presumably hot weather; and under the circumstances she might reasonably object to swathe her person in more than the nine folds of raiment, in which, as it turned out, she was already involved. Could this, madam, have been an ordinary cotton gown, think you? Fancy, nine cotton gowns, one on the top of another, with a thermometer at ever so many degrees in the shade. This would be rather too strict an enforcement of propriety at the expense of humanity. But, listen. The whole nine folds were, we are told, woven out of four ounces of cotton. A court dress composed of such scanty material could not but be of considerable transparency. Which was right, father or daughter, we forbear to decide. One point is clear, the cotton gown in question was not an ordinary one. Nay, it will appear almost an impossibility, when we judge of the bulk of the four ounces by that of the pound weight, and then think of the number of square yards of stuff that would be required to go nine times round the thinnest of damsels. In reality it is even not anything extraordinary. Assuming the dress to have contained some twenty square yards, the above weight of cotton need not have been spun into yarn of a much higher count than 300's, in order to be woven into the whole quantity of stuff required. Now yarn, twice as fine as this, is constantly manufactured into lace in this country; in one instance, we have the authority of an inspector of factories for the fact, it has been made into a dress for her present Majesty. To make the muslin which composed that dress, our little lump of four ounces must have spread itself out into a web, which would have covered a space extending 120 feet in every direction. Were we not justified in saying that "woven wind" was no very exaggerated epithet?

And so cotton, too, has its wonders; and the above are of them. But in common gratitude, let us speak one word for common-place cotton—for the cotton gown, *pure et simple*, whether it be the morning wrapper of the lady, or the working-dress of the kitchen-maid. All wear, all despise, or, we should rather say, affect to despise it. For if they really did so, they would not, one and all, men and women, spend on an average 12s. a-year each in buying it, and thereby afford employment to one-tenth of the whole population. Spinners, who spun nothing stouter than gossamer, and weavers, who wove nothing less hairy than wind, would hardly find such good customers for their wares. Cotton is strong, cheap, and comfortable. People want something strong, cheap, and comfortable, that may bid defiance to bronchitis, and support, without much darning, the tender mercies of the laundress. Therefore cotton is useful, therefore everybody buys it, therefore it is common-place.—Q.E.D.

#### THE ROYAL BOTANICAL GARDENS, REGENT'S PARK.

WE question whether the Royal Botanical Gardens ever witnessed *fêtes* in every aspect much more successful than the two last. As if to keep the gardens cool, a fresh breeze on both occasions tempered the sober sky until the late afternoon, when the sun shone forth with a mild and loving splendour. Scarcely a speck of dust disturbed the air or dimmed the thousand pretty feet of the fair host who yearly repair as in amiable rivalry to challenge the charms of the floral assembly. On Ascot Wednesday, too, to crown the scene, the wind thought proper to bring us a balloon from Cremorne, winging its lazy resplendent flight over the gazing crowd, and apparently loth to lose sight of so pleasant a scene. The arrangements for the comfort of the visitors were on the whole excellent, the music good, nor can we speak too highly of the urbanity of the gentlemen intrusted with the management of the exhibition, and their zeal in affording to inquirers all the information in their power. We wish, however, to call their attention to two points. One is the apparent difficulty of obtaining printed lists of the flowers and fruits exhibited, a defect easily remedied with very trifling outlay. The other is that in too many instances the labels affixed to the plants are too small to be distinctly legible. Moreover, it would be advantageous to give the common and scientific names in bold relief, and according to a fixed and definite arrangement in all cases. But these are minor details. The show of flowers and fruits was magnificent. On Wednesday last, indeed, the Rhododendrons had partially faded, and seemed to have delegated the representation of their particular style of beauty to the Pelargoniums. The exhibition tent and the fruit tent thus carried off the final honours of the season. The stove and greenhouse plants contained marvellous exotic specimens. We doubt whether in their own climes they often reach the perfection to which our gardeners can bring them.

"Sunt quos juvat," said Horace once, and a splendid list he gave Mæcenas of the various tastes of his countrymen. Many are the Englishman's tastes in our own day; but none, perhaps, more decided, more amiable, and at the same time more illustrative of his national life, than his love of flowers. The love of flowers is not of course peculiar to him. He shares it with mankind at large. But nowhere has floriculture been developed on so large a scale as part and parcel, so to speak, of our institutions. A splendid territorial aristocracy wedded to their estates, combined with the greatest commercial enterprise in the world, and the wide diffusion of a high standard of average wealth, partly account for the phenomenon. Honour also to the brave. Bravery's chief rewards have ever been beauty and sweetness. A beautiful face, a sweet flower, and exquisite music are no doubt the three most delightful things which life has in store for us, most fitting rewards for the best and highest form of bravery, the bravery of toil. Many a plodding day and weary night do brave English hearts endure for years under their cold, stern mask, that they may claim one fair face, one sweet rose, as all their own.

What are our vast enterprises, our huge factories, our gigantic storehouses, puffing engines, railways, telegraphs, but the great combined expression of English hearts yearning for English homes? Toil for toil's sake is a mere mockery, a means, not an end. For what, then, do we toil? Where is the Englishman's reward? We answer, go and study the Horticultural and Botanical Fêtes. Look at the most lovely among Englishwomen curiously peering in amiable competition into the face of the most lovely among flowers. Silks, satins, velvets, gold, silver, and precious stones, Art, Science, Nature at large, have been placed under contribution to adorn the one jewel of man's heart, and on a set day we all start for the Botanical Gardens, and before the august convocation of flowers assembled from every part of the



globe, and sitting in placid judgment, amid the flourish of trumpets, the ladies ask the solemn question, "Are we equal to you yet?" And the flowers seem to answer, "No, ladies, no, not yet. Poets, indeed, have compared you to the flower. The flower is the poet's ideal of freshness, grace, sweetness, repose, and harmony. Lovely you certainly are,—very lovely,—and you can walk and talk; but—you are not equal to the flower yet." We may accept the decision without humiliation. The American tent, the fruit tent, the exhibition tent, contained beauties beyond language. Milton's talk of "blooming gold," the Arabian Nights themselves, could scarcely vie with the floral charms set forth by the Botanical Society. If all the beauty in London—and where is beauty more beautiful?—bore their own faces painted in myriad forms, and a mixed, subdued effulgence of cloud, rose, and lily on their own petticoats, with their own sweet prototype crowning the whole, they might, perhaps, just compete with the assembly of rhododendrons in the American tent, and the pelargoniums in the Exhibition Tent. Lady Eleanor Cathcart and the Duchess of Sutherland may well be proud of their sponsorship.

We hope Mr. Waterer is not a man of too keen a sensibility. Otherwise he might be liable to fall in love with his own plants—a deplorable illusion, admitting of no remedy. An illusion we say, and not a delusion—for that flowers have faces, no one can doubt. It seems to us that, in spite of all that has yet been said upon the language of flowers, the one cardinal point has been forgotten, that a flower has a face—a physiognomy—as marked, distinct, and individual, as any physiognomy in the animal kingdom. If Lavater had extended his speculations from animals to flowers, we should then have had the first rudiments of the true language of flowers—the meaning of each floral face. The dragon-fly, ghastly glare of the poisonous, yet fascinating orchid; the fresh, full, noble sympathy of the rose; the prudish sweetness of the violet, the fashionable and complicated coquetry of the pelargonium, the cold-glazed perfection of the Camellia—all these are perfect ideal types of particular characters. He was no madman, then, who loved his picciola; and his love is illustrated and ratified by the English crowds who yearly throng the Botanical Gardens, where Kings and Queens, Dukes, Duchesses, Bishops, Ambassadors, Statesmen, all vie in paying their homage and tribute to England's most innocent passion—her passion for flowers.

#### MUSIC.

##### ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.—"UN BALLO IN MASCHERA."

We briefly stated last week that Verdi's new opera achieved a fair success. To say more would be going beyond the truth. In the first place, the novelty which naturally attaches to the first performance of a new work had much abated, the opera having been performed several times at the Lyceum Theatre. Then the music, as we have already said, bears such a striking resemblance to that of other operas by Signor Verdi, especially "Rigoletto" and "La Traviata," that even the best phrases and more striking points pass comparatively unnoticed. In one or two instances also, if we compare the performances at the two houses, the scale inclines in favour of the smaller theatre, with reference, especially, to the representatives of *Amelia* (Middle. Tietjens) and *Renato* (Signor Delle Sedie). But, perhaps, the chief cause of this *succès d'estime* lies in the mannerism and the idiosyncrasy of the composer; for, if we are not mistaken, the more Signor Verdi now writes the smaller his success will be. It is with his operas as with the French novels of the present day—they are read, admired, and forgotten. The classical element is wanting. No one will deny that Verdi has given proofs of much musical instinct and dramatic genius, nay, that he is the only recent Italian composer who can write a popular opera; but this very dearth of composers is the mainspring of his success, since, if Italy could produce another Rossini, Bellini, or Donizetti, Signor Verdi would no longer rank where he does. We feel convinced that nothing vulgar can ever last. It may for a while please the ear and find admirers, but the spell is evanescent.

We believe, however, that Verdi might have been a great composer had he studied his art more conscientiously; if, instead of writing two operas in one year, he had written one opera in two years; if he had more thoroughly mastered his subject, and endeavoured to imitate the great models, by writing music for all times, not for the day; if, we say, he had done all this, then Verdi would have deserved a place by the side of Rossini, Auber, and Meyerbeer, but to this honour, with due respect for his great talent, he can as yet lay no claim.

And now for "Un Ballo in Maschera." A second hearing has fully confirmed the opinion we expressed on its first representation at the Lyceum Theatre; nor do we see any reason for altering a word of what we then said about its merits. Every act has its beauties and its weaknesses. The first contains an aria for the tenor, and another for the baritone, which are written in Verdi's best manner. The gem of the second act is a quintet, in which the phrase occurs, "è scherzo, od è follia," one of the best pieces in the opera. *Amelia's* scene and air, "Ecco l'orrido campo," a dramatic trio, and a spirited finale form the attraction of the third; while in the fourth act, the song for baritone, "Dolcezza perduto," creates great effect. So much for the beauties.

As for the weaknesses, they are distributed all over the opera, and consist in commonplace melody, poverty of idea, want of design, and unskilful treatment of the orchestra. Whenever Signor Verdi is at a loss to express a dramatic situation, he has recourse to a mysterious grumbling of double basses, and unearthly sounds of the brass instruments, or worse still, he allows the situation to speak for itself, by observing a dead silence, which, perhaps, is the wisest course after all.

Of the performance itself, however, we can speak with much praise, as in every respect correct, effective, and complete. The singers were well up in their parts, if we except Madame Miolan-Carvalho (*Oscar*), who was occasionally in need of assistance. The music allotted to her is sprightly and brilliant, though, in composing it, Signor Verdi has followed Auber and Meyerbeer rather too closely. The part of *Riccardo* suits Signor Mario admirably. He looks a real duke, count, or prince, be he English, Spanish, or Italian, and sings with his usual grace and sweetness. We regretted, remembering how great an actor he is, that his dying moments were cut so short, as no one better than Signor Mario understands the art of breathing his last on the stage; witness his Gennaro, in "Luciozia Borgia." He may, however, have had good reasons for forgetting to inform his friend Renato, in plaintive accent, that *Amelia*, his wife "è pura," though, we think it would have been a comfort for the husband to know the fact. Signor Graziani (*Renato*) gave signs of improvement, and sung throughout with much vigour and feeling. He must, however, guard himself against extremes both in singing and acting, since there is only one step from the sublime to the ridiculous. Madame Penco made an interesting *Amelia*—never great, but always satisfactory; while Madame Nantier-Didé, as the sorceress *Ulrica*, has added

another part to her repertoire of copper-coloured impersonations, which, as times go, are in reality worth gold. In Signor Tagliafico we recognized *Sam*, and in M. Zelger, *Tom*, according to the English version, though their titles are changed. They are great villains nevertheless; and, like most great villains, play their parts so consummately well, that the public is compelled to applaud instead of condemning them.

We must add that the opera is produced with the utmost splendour; the moonlight scene in the third, and the masked ball in the fourth acts, both beautiful instances of scene painting. In the masquerade the animated dancing of Mlle. Salvioni and M. Desplaces, the picturesque costumes, and the bustling crowd of masks, all combine to make up a perfect "ensemble," while the orchestra and chorus leave little to be desired.

#### LAST CONCERTS OF THE SEASON.

The struggle is nearly at an end. In a few days our concert-rooms will be deserted; the fiddle, the pipe, and the drum will have their holiday; the foreign artists, who have honoured us with their presence, will return to their homes, many of them with blighted hopes and empty pockets; while the resident professor and teacher is preparing for a trip in the country, or a stroll by the seaside. It is, indeed, high time that we should all have a little rest. The mass of music that besieges London between the months of April and July, is simply monstrous. We have taken the trouble to add up the number of concerts in the space of the last ten weeks, and we find the sum total to be one hundred and fifty, private soirées not included. The three great orchestral societies were the first to depart, while the Monday Popular Concerts and the Musical Union closed their doors on Monday and Tuesday last, with a performance for the benefit of the directors. A benefit they certainly deserve, and no one more so than Mr. Arthur Chappell, the director of the Monday Popular Concerts. The benefit which this gentleman has conferred on the musical public at large is incalculable. A good concert of classical chamber music, in former days, was beyond the means of the middle-class amateur; while, at the present moment, it is within the reach of the humblest student and the most modest devotee. Not only has Mr. Chappell contributed to diffuse the taste for good music, he has also raised the standard of execution, and caused the best works of the great masters to be performed by the first artists of the day, "regardless of expense," and "free from all party spirit." This is no small praise. We were pleased, therefore, to see that on the occasion of his benefit, and the last concert of the season, St. James's Hall was crowded with an enthusiastic and appreciating audience.

The programme of the evening was of the first excellence, in the selection of music and in the choice of performers. Messrs. Wieniawski, Ries, Webb, and Piatti, opened the concert with Beethoven's quartett in E flat, No. 12, one of the most beautiful and most difficult of the posthumous quartetts; they also played one by Haydn, in D, No. 63, with its lovely andante and rapid finale. Both works were well executed. To say how Miss Arabella Goddard excelled in the "Suite de Pièces," by Handel, containing the "Harmonious Blacksmith," how charmingly she gave another sonata, by Dussek, for pianoforte and violin, assisted by M. Wieniawski; and how admirably she performed her part in the duet for two pianofortes, in D major, by Mozart, sharing the honours with Mr. Charles Hallé, would be saying that which everyone knows. Mr. Charles Hallé chose a piece by Scarlatti, once more proving his great ability and classical predilections. Signor Piatti, the greatest of modern violoncello players, interpreted the greatest of old masters, playing Bach's gavotte and sarabanda. Mr. Santley and Miss Banks gave variety to the instrumental music by singing some beautiful songs, by Dussek and Schubert. It was altogether a most classical entertainment, and worthy of the usual character of these popular concerts.

Mr. Ella, the director and founder of the Musical Union, also concluded his seventeenth season in a very brilliant manner. What Mr. Chappell has done for the middle classes, Mr. Ella has achieved for the "beau monde," who appear to put implicit faith in everything which the lucky director says or does. If he tells them M. Wieniawski is great, Herr Joachim greater than M. Wieniawski, and M. Vieuxtemps as good as either, they believe him; if he declares that M. Ritter and M. Lubeck are the lions of Paris, he is right; if, while comparing the two brothers Rubinstein, he fails to see any real difference, he has again spoken true; and if, last not least, he ventures to pay himself a little compliment, by quoting a passage from *The Times* that "it was highly to our credit, and said much for our system of management, that there had not been a single disappointment," we feel inclined to take him at his word, and cheerfully acknowledge that great credit is due to him for his exertions. On this occasion M. Wieniawski led Beethoven's septet, and performed a solo by Vieuxtemps, "Thème varié," with wonderful skill. His "staccato," bowing up and down, is really astonishing, and executed with a precision not to be surpassed. In cantabile phrases, he is alike warm and impassioned, while over the left hand he has a perfect command. M. Lubeck, who "purposely came over to this Matinée in order to fulfil his promise, and to enable Mr. Ella to keep faith with his members," deserves our best thanks for having done so, since, without his kindness, we should have missed a very excellent performance of Hummel's beautiful septet. Of the four movements we preferred the "Tema con variazioni" and the finale, being most suited to his vigorous style and powerful hand.

If it was interesting to notice the difference of talent between Herr Lubeck and Mr. Hallé, who played that lovely sonata in E flat, Op. 31, No. 3, by Beethoven, the former exhibiting his masculine vigour on an instrument by Erard; the latter, on the other hand, preferring the mellowness and round tone of Broadwood's pianos. Both, we think, had reasons for their choice, M. Lubeck wanting the exquisite delicacy and refinement so conspicuous in Mr. Hallé's performance. Herr Lubeck, at the end of the concert, gave two solo pieces of his own, the second of which appeared to us to possess much merit, both in idea and construction, and to be executed with remarkable energy and sustained effect. The composer was very warmly applauded.

On ordinary occasions there is no singing at these Matinées, but this being a grand Matinée, Mr. Ella had engaged Signor Delle Sedie, who has been the most successful candidate for public favour this season, and fully deserves his success.

We learn from the "Synoptical Analysis," that the season of 1861 shows a slight increase of members. We, therefore, beg to congratulate Mr. Ella, and to wish him all speed.

Although we have been complaining about the number of concerts, yet there are some that have given us much pleasure, and deserve a few passing words. We were present at a concert given by M. Aloys Kettenus, at the residence of the Marchioness of Downshire, where we heard, amongst other good things, a new quintet, for two violins, two violas, and a violoncello, composed by the learned and well-known director of the Conservatoire at Brussels, Monsieur F. F. Pétis. As far as we could judge from a single hearing, it is the work of a thoughtful musician and an accomplished scholar; the slow movement and finale, in particular, showing a master-hand. The quintet was beautifully executed by Messrs. Kettenus, Wiener, Webb, Hann, and Paque. The concert-giver likewise distinguished himself in an *adagio* of his own composition.



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One of the most charming concerts of the season, however, was that of the great violoncellist, Signor Piatti, which took place at "Campden House." We wish we could find space to do justice to the admirable performances of this gifted artist, but, fortunately, no words of ours could add the slightest lustre to his well-deserved fame. We wish, however, to do homage to the versatile talent of Madame Piatti, of whose merits as a pianiste we have spoken on a former occasion. Not only did this accomplished lady again give proofs of her powers in the beautiful and intricate quintet of Robert Schumann, she also appeared as a vocalist, taking part in the quartet "A te o cara," and a duet from "Le Prophète," with Madame Sainton-Dolby, and acquitted herself of her difficult task in the most satisfactory manner. Madame Piatti accompanied her husband in deux Morceaux caractéristiques by Rubinstein, and a new fantasia on "Il Trovatore" of his own composition, performed with such charming taste and simplicity, that Verdi's hackneyed tunes sounded like new and elegant melodies. Such is the power of genius. We can do no more than mention the names of the singers, who were Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Messrs. Béart, Delle Sedie, Solieri, Gardoni, Lablache, and Santley; and the instrumentalists Messrs. Sainton, Bezeth, and Strauss. Messrs. Benedict and Campana conducted.

### CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

ALTHOUGH the excitement consequent upon the great fire at London-bridge is, like the fire itself, somewhat on the wane, and the different topics connected with it have been the subject of considerable discussion, there are still one or two scientific points which have not yet received that degree of attention which we consider their importance deserves. The first point which claims notice is the method universally adopted for putting out fires by means of water. At first sight nothing would seem more self-evident than that this was the best plan to be adopted. We are so accustomed to use water to quench any incipient combustion, that the employment of the same means to extinguish any large conflagration seems almost a matter of course. A little inquiry into the subject will show that, however antagonistic fire and water are on the small scale, the case is very different with such a conflagration as has been recently witnessed. Let us suppose that we require to put out a small fire—a kitchen fire, for instance—containing at the most a cubic foot of glowing coals, how much water would have to be thrown on it? Possibly a pailful thrown on at once would accomplish the desired object; but would it have the same effect if it were thrown on half a pint at a time, allowing five minutes to elapse between each addition? By the time the pail was emptied the fire might, perhaps, burn rather less fiercely than it originally did, but it certainly would not be out. What effect, then, is it likely would take place if the pailful took a day or two to empty, the water being gently sprinkled on the fire by means of a child's squirt?

The idea of putting out a fire in this way seems absurd, yet it is rather a favourable illustration of the very plan adopted at London Bridge. We doubt if during the last fortnight a volume of water has been poured into the fire bearing anything like the same proportion to the bulk of the blazing mass, as our pailful of water did to the kitchen fire; and most certainly sprinkling the water on with a child's squirt does not present so utter a disproportion between the desired effect and the means employed, as the system of gentle irrigation which has been performed upon the three acres of burning ruins by the few steam and hand fire-engines which so hopelessly attempted to quench the combustion. The experience of our kitchen fire has therefore shown one important fact, that, to enable water to exert any quenching effect on a fire, a volume of it bearing some considerable proportion to the entire mass of burning fuel must be suddenly thrown on to the flames. A quantity of water, amply sufficient to put out a fire if thrown on at once, becomes useless if its distribution is allowed to take place gradually during several hours, or, as in this instance, days.

One word respecting the explosions which have been currently attributed to saltpetre, and one of which was the cause of so lamentable and irreparable a loss to the fire-brigade. We do not, of course, deny that the presence of a sufficient quantity of saltpetre would be, under favourable circumstances, ample cause for explosions; but it seems to be forgotten that the sudden projection of a limited quantity of cold water into the midst of an intensely-heated mass of combustible matter is a far more likely cause of the serious accidents and explosions which took place. Not only would the liquid instantly flash out into steam, and thus exert a disruptive force equal to that of gunpowder, but the vaporized water, passing upwards through the red-hot fuel, would be decomposed with formation of the two highly combustible gases, hydrogen and carbonic oxide, the combustion of which would add in no small degree to the flames already existing. Thus it is seen that the projection of an insufficient quantity of water on to a fire not only does no good, but it actually adds fuel to the flames, tending to increase the energy of the combustion.

In a fire of such unexampled magnitude as the present one, it would be quite out of the question to think of raising a sufficient volume of water in a short enough space of time to be of much avail. Fires of this character are happily rare; but, in any instance, we think it will be admitted that except in the most paltry cases the jet of water from an engine is of very trifling use in extinguishing the actual fire, and can only be effectually employed in preventing the flames spreading to the surrounding property. Now, this ought not to be. With such fabulous stores of wealth lining both sides of our river, each of the most combustible nature, and only waiting for the merest accident to transform them into a blazing furnace, it should be the first duty of every one interested therein to see that there is constantly at hand on the river an adequate means of extinguishing fire, and not to leave this vital point to engines, the united powers of which are outdone by a moderate shower of rain.

We can command steam-power equal to the performance of almost any conceivable task; our means of transporting water in quantity to any given spot in the shortest time is a problem which any engineer could readily solve; and we have the Thames itself—an inexhaustible supply—to draw from. There is, therefore, no possible difficulty, except that of cost, in instantly deluging any burning pile on the river-side with such a mass of water that its extinction in a few minutes, or, at most, hours, would be certain; and the question of expense of such an engine can scarcely be seriously discussed in the face of the million and a half loss consequent upon the late gigantic conflagration.

### ASTRONOMICAL INTELLIGENCE.

#### THE COMET.

UNDOUBTEDLY, the event which has chiefly agitated the astronomical world since the publication of our last number, is the sudden and unexpected appearance of one of the finest comets which has been seen for many years, not even excepting that of 1858 (vi.—Donati's).

As far as we know at present, the first discoverer was Mr. Burder, of Clifton, who detected it on Sunday morning at 2h. 40m. A.M., and on the evening of the same day it was observed by many persons, ourselves included; so conspicuous, indeed, was it at about 11h., that it was hardly possible for any one to have missed seeing it; it was in the constellation Auriga, some distance W. of Capella, its actual position being—

G. M. T. R. A. Decl.  
June 30 15h. 39m. 52s. ... 6h. 47m. 59s. ...  $\times 48^{\circ} 25' 6''$

The comet's nucleus was large and bright, and was surrounded by an extensive coma. Some idea of its brilliancy may be gathered from the fact that it was seen by Mr. Lowe, of the Beeston Observatory, at 7h. 49m. P.M., not only in strong twilight, but when the sun was actually above the horizon. After sunset, and as the twilight diminished, the full extent of the tail gradually came into view, and we ourselves fairly traced it to a length of  $90^{\circ}$  from Auriga, over the Pole-star, up to Lyra. Mr. Lowe's estimate of the tail was  $45^{\circ}$ ; Mr. Eaton, at Leyton, traced it to  $70^{\circ}$ ; and another observer set it down at  $91^{\circ}$ .

Mr. Eaton, who made use of Mr. Gurney Barclay's new 10-inch glass, thus speaks of the aspect of the head, at 1h. 15m. A.M. on Monday morning:—"It presented the singular appearance of three distinct parabolic envelopes, of which the innermost was much the highest; a space, devoid of luminosity, separated the innermost from the middle envelope, excepting at the apex, and a similar test intervened between the middle and outer, but on the left side only. The nucleus itself was situated on the apparent right of the innermost envelope, and was equal in brightness to a star of the second magnitude."

Mr. W. Lassell, of Sandfield Park, near Liverpool, in allusion to its great brilliancy, says: "I am persuaded, from attentive scrutiny from midnight to one a.m., that the nucleus of this comet far surpasses in size and brightness that of 1858, and that if it could be seen on a dark sky, it would exceed in splendour any comet which has visited us during this century."

On Monday evening, July 1, we obtained glimpses of the comet, at intervals, from about 9h. to midnight, but the prevalence of much haze and heavy banks of cloud, ultimately turning to rain, prevented any very good observations.

The following was its position:—

July 1, 11h. 16m. 31s. ... 7h. 31m. 47s. ...  $+ 56^{\circ} 6' 6''$

That is to say, in the northern part of Lynx.

On Tuesday evening, July 2, the sky, at first somewhat overcast, gradually became completely clear, and the comet was very favourably observed. At 12 o'clock the tail was distinctly seen to be  $75^{\circ}$  long, and with care was quite traceable to a length of  $109\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , right across the heavens, from near  $\alpha$  Ursæ Majoris, over to a little way to the south of  $\alpha$  Ophiuchi. There was also a second tail, or fan, branching out from the main one. This was nearly or quite straight, but the fan was curved. We, and others with us, considered the tail to be much more defined than it was on Sunday night, but less broad. The main tail might be set down at  $3^{\circ}$ , and the breadth of the whole, including the fan, at  $7^{\circ}$ .

The nucleus, viewed in an achromatic telescope of 12 feet focal length, charged with a low power, presented several features of interest; more particularly we noticed an appearance, also seen in the case of Donati's comet in 1858, namely, the existence of a luminous sector surrounding the nucleus; we refrain from a further description of this now, as next week we hope to illustrate it.

The following dimensions were obtained with a parallel-wire micrometer:—

Diameter of nucleus ... .. 11.2"  
Breadth of sector ... .. about  $2\frac{1}{2}'$   
Breadth of the coma ... .. " 16'

Also the following positions were taken during the evening:—

Time.	R.A.	Decl.
h. m. s.	h. m. s.	deg. min.
July 2, 9 40 32	8 31 0	$+ 62 16.5$
13 33	8 38 37	$+ 62 54.3$

Taking the comet as a whole there can be no doubt but that it is a finer one than that of 1858, though there may have been some features of interest in that, which are not to be met with in the present one.

In the *Standard* of Tuesday, a correspondent called attention to the probable identity of the new comet with that of 1556, based on an agreement of the computed position of the latter with that of the present one on Sunday evening; though at the time we write this surmise has not been definitely confirmed, yet it is a highly probable one.

July 3, 1861, 2.45 A.M.

G. C.

The following results, obtained by Mr. Hind, with other communications addressed to ourselves, accompanied with sketches of the comet seen under various conditions, will, we hope, interest our readers.

The comet arrived at its least distance from the sun about one o'clock, on the morning of June 10, in heliocentric longitude  $244^{\circ} 35'$ , being then separated from him by 76,000,000 miles. It crossed the plain of the earth's orbit from the south to the north side in longitude  $279^{\circ} 1'$  on June 28, in a path inclined  $85^{\circ} 58'$  to the ecliptic. The true orbital motion is direct.

Its distance from the earth on Sunday evening was rather over 13,000,000 miles, and a little less than 15,000,000 at 11 o'clock last evening. It is therefore receding slowly from us, as well as from the sun. The apparent length of the tail last night was  $70^{\circ}$  deg., corresponding to a true length of 16,000,000 miles. The nucleus, which is extremely brilliant, was about 400 miles in diameter.

The comet has a very striking and interesting appearance in the telescope; but it would be difficult to describe it without the assistance of a diagram. It is certainly not the comet of Charles V. (1556), the return of which has been anticipated about this epoch.

I subjoin a few places, calculated from my elements, which will sufficiently define the track in the heavens during the ensuing week:—

FOR MEAN MIDNIGHT AT GREENWICH.			
Right Ascension.	North Declination.	Distance from the Earth in miles.	
h. m.	deg. min.	16,500,000	18,400,000
July 3 ... 9 47.8	66 3	...	...
" 4 ... 10 57.7	66 24	...	20,500,000
" 5 ... 11 53.7	66 8	...	22,700,000
" 6 ... 12 34.8	64 40	...	25,100,000
" 7 ... 13 4.7	63 0	...	27,500,000
" 8 ... 13 26.5	61 22	...	30,000,000
" 9 ... 13 43.0	59 51	...	32,500,000
" 10 ... 13 55.6	58 28	...	...

I remain, Sir, your most obedient servant,

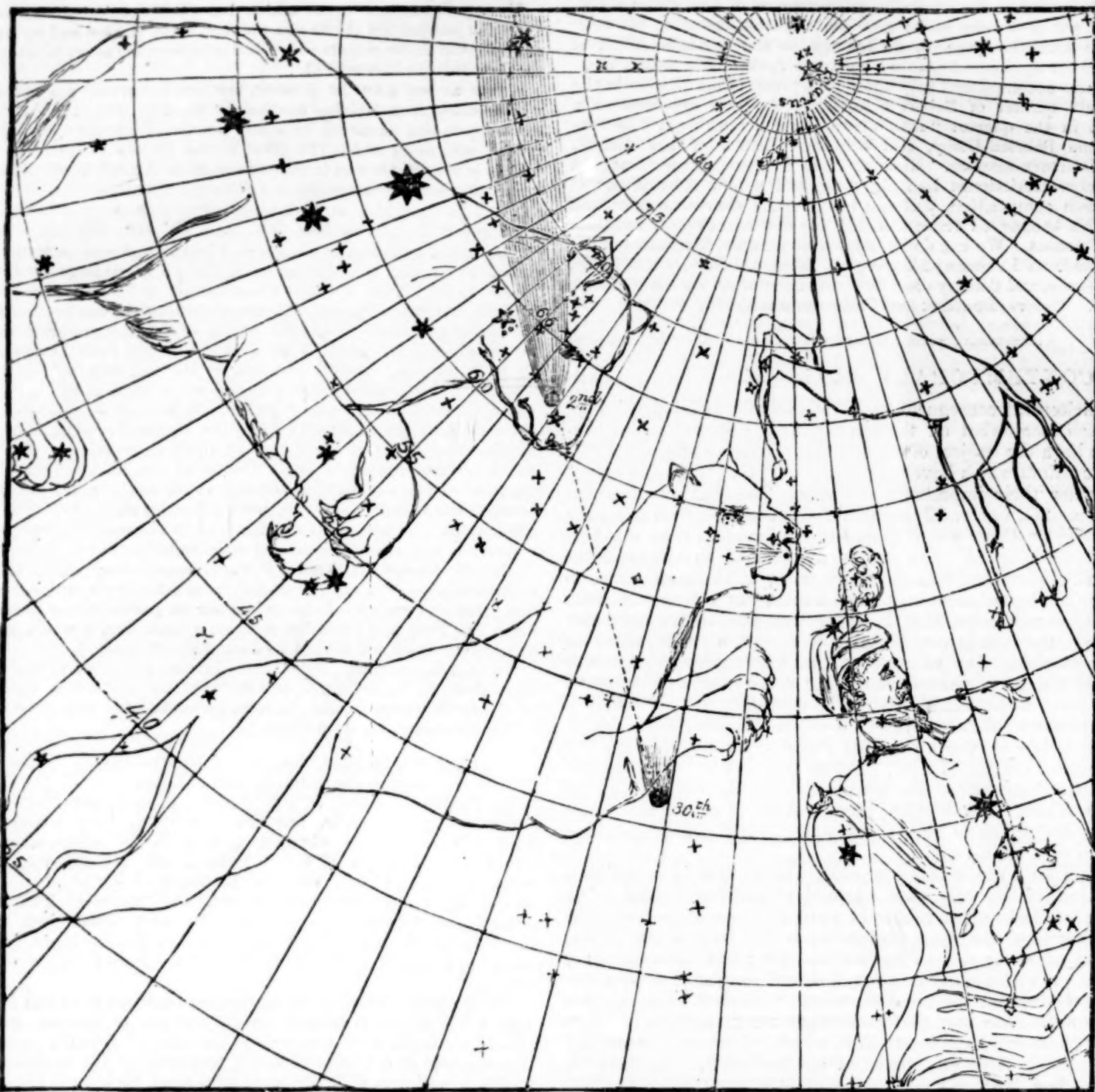
Mr. G. Bishop's Observatory, Regent's-park, July 3rd.

J. R. HIND.



## MAP OF THE PATH OF THE COMET.

(See Letter of Mr. Hind.)



To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—The bright comet, now so conspicuous at night in the northern part of the heavens, was seen here first about ten o'clock on June 30. By comparisons with two stars in Argelander's catalogue, which were made with the Northumberland telescope, I obtained as follows:—

At June 30, 11h. 12m. 59.3s., Greenwich mean time.

Comet's right ascension, 6h. 40m. 27.85s.

Ditto north pole distance,  $43^{\circ} 22' 36.5''$ .

Increment of R.A. in 1h. 110s.

Decrement of N.P.D. in 1h. 26.5s.

The nucleus is as bright as a star of the first magnitude. The accompanying naked-eye view (a) represents the comet as seen about the time it was due north, its tail reaching to within a few degrees of the polar-star, and being at least thirty degrees long. As the field of view of the telescope was considerably illumined by crepuscular light, the four curved branches, represented in the sketch of the head (b), must have been the brighter parts of the coma. The space within the parabolic curve and near the nucleus appeared darker than the contiguous exterior space. I noticed particularly that the position of the nucleus was not at the apex of that curve. These observations were all made with a magnifying power of 100.

Cambridge Observatory, July 1, 1861.

J. CHALLIS.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—I enclose a drawing of the head of the comet as I observed it on Monday morning, at 1.30 a.m. Since then the appearance has greatly altered, the exterior envelopes having completely disappeared; in fact, the comet is fast losing its

brilliancy in its retreat from the sun; the tail, which on Sunday night exceeded  $70^{\circ}$  in length, is now under  $60^{\circ}$ , and in a few days its rapid course will have



carried it far beyond the reach of mortal sight, as will be seen by the places given below.

June 30—12h. 6m. G.M.T. R.A. 6h. 42m. 1s.  
N.P.D.  $43^{\circ} 0' 8''$

July 2—9h. 45m. 11s. R.A. 8h. 27m. 42s.  
N.P.D.  $27^{\circ} 52' 22''$



The places are only approximate, as no corrections for parallax have been applied.

Knott's-green, Leyton, Essex, July 3rd, 1861.

Obediently yours,

H. S. EATON.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—The luminous section accompanying the nucleus, which was so apparent in the comets of 1682 and 1744, and likewise in those of Halley and Donati, is well seen in the present one. It is, as usual, turned towards the sun, and in the contrary direction to the tail. It is slightly brighter than the surrounding portion of the head, but separated from it by a remarkably definite outline. It bears some resemblance to the ordinary fan-shaped jet of gas. The lower and right-hand boundary (as seen in an inverting telescope) is curved upwards, and is brighter than the left, which is nearly straight. Two fainter spurs of light were occasionally seen below those, in which case the most luminous part of the head took a semi-circular instead of a rounded form. A few faint spurs of light were occasionally seen within the sector and apparently radiating from the nucleus. Two envelopes to the nucleus could be seen, and a very faint one exterior to the sector, which passed on and formed part of the tail of the comet. The tail of the comet on July 4, 1½ A.M., was not so long as on the preceding night, but could still be traced (passing through Alpha Draconis) nearly to the Milky Way, and beyond Alpha Ophiuchi, and must therefore have been upwards of 85° in length. The telescopic appearance of the comet on July 4, 1½ A.M., is represented in the accompanying drawing. It is taken with a very fine 7-foot refractor, by Wray, in the possession of J. Buckingham, Esq., C.E., and agrees with the appearances noticed by the latter gentleman. The powers used varied between 173 and 400.

Telescopic Appearance of the Comet, July 4th, 1½ a.m. As seen with Mr. Buckingham's 7-foot Equatorial.

(passing through Alpha Draconis) nearly to the Milky Way, and beyond Alpha Ophiuchi, and must therefore have been upwards of 85° in length. The telescopic appearance of the comet on July 4, 1½ A.M., is represented in the accompanying drawing. It is taken with a very fine 7-foot refractor, by Wray, in the possession of J. Buckingham, Esq., C.E., and agrees with the appearances noticed by the latter gentleman. The powers used varied between 173 and 400.

JAMES BREEN.

Nautical Almanac Office, July 4th, 1861.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—The comet presented a most magnificent spectacle on Tuesday night between ten and eleven P.M.; surpassing (as it appeared to me) in brilliancy and beauty the celebrated comet of Donati. The nucleus shone with a pale silvery light about equal in intensity to the mean brilliancy of Venus, but partaking more of the character of the light of Jupiter. On comparison with first magnitude stars, as Arcturus, Vega, and others, although apparently brighter, the nucleus did not manifest that compactness or density of light which characterizes the fixed stars. The head or coma was brightly illuminated, and exhibited an unmistakably hazy appearance, so that the nucleus shone through it as a planet would through a not over thin veil of Cirro-Stratus cloud; the tail, which rose nearly perpendicularly from the nucleus, was very dense, far exceeding in brilliancy any portion of the Milky Way; it passed over the two stars,  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  Draconis, maintaining nearly as far as these stars a denseness of luminosity exceedingly striking, and which was very beautiful when the nucleus itself was hidden by cloud. Beyond these stars the tail appeared to be divided into fine lines of light, stretching beyond the three stars,  $\theta$  and  $\eta$  Draconis,—a few were seen crossing the zenith. The head was situated near  $\alpha$  Ursa Majoris, and the tail extended to near  $\gamma$  Herculis; it presented the usual graceful curve, convex towards Polaris, the opposite side towards Ursa Major being much less well defined.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

July 3, 1861.

W. R. BIRT.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—I wish to draw your attention to the annexed extract from *Galignani's Messenger*, in which the probability of the present comet being the same as that which appeared in 1556 is referred to.

"This new visitor, which has taken even astronomers by surprise, shone with great brilliancy last night, exciting universal admiration. The reason why it was not observed before is that, up to the 30th ult., its distance from the pole was such as to make it set together with the sun; whereas, from that date, it has approached so near the pole that it cannot set at all. Its size does not at present exceed that of 1858, and it differs from it materially in this respect, that its tail is straight instead of being curved. The observations taken by MM. Lépiessier and Lœvy on the 30th ult. were as follows:—

Mean Time, Paris.	Right Ascension.	Distance from Pole.
H. M.	H. M. S.	° ' "
9 5	6 37 4	44 11 1
11 27	6 40 37	43 20 9
11 44	6 41 1	43 13 5

"Yesterday, its distance from the pole was not more than 35°; it having thus performed nearly 8° northward in the course of twenty-four hours. It is composed, as usual, of a very brilliant nucleus, a luminous aureole of considerable breadth, a tuft on the side turned towards the sun, and a large tail in the opposite direction. According to M. Chacornac the tuft is eccentric, and composed of six curved and radiant branches, each not more than a minute in length; they are all curved in the same sense. As might have been expected, the comet gave rise to an animated discussion at yesterday's sitting of the Academy of Sciences. M. Elie de Beaumont read a letter from M. Goldschmidt, the amateur astronomer, in which he stated that the comet was 35° in length, and between three and four in breadth, so that it measures 17,000,000 of leagues. M. Babinet remarked that M. Hind's Ephemerides of Charles V.'s comet give it the precise position of the present one. M. Bonine had predicted its return in 1858, and Mr. Hind admitted that it might return between 1856 and 1860. Considering the imperfect manner in which observations were taken three centuries ago, it would surprise no one that a difference of six months should exist between the time of its appearance and the time calculated. If this were so, the present comet was the same that had been observed in 1556, and caused the abdication of Charles V. It had previously appeared, according to Pingre, in 1264, when it was supposed to announce the death of Pope Urban IV.; and its appearance had been recorded

even earlier, in July, 975, by the Chinese. M. Leverrier was not of M. Babinet's opinion. Mr. Hind's table showed different positions which Charles V.'s comet might occupy in the event of its return, and the question was so undetermined, that it was no wonder to find a position in the table answering to that of the present comet. And, indeed, there was one corresponding to the position of the 30th of June; but the motion of the present comet in the course of twenty-four hours was so different from that given in the table, that the identity of the two comets could no longer be admitted. Here the subject dropped."

The reference made in the preceding extract to the comet of 1556 imparts an additional interest to the following extract from a very old work published in 1557. The passage is to be found in the work of Lycosthenes, describing the appearance of the great comet of 1556. Brief as is the description, it affords the only data on which the reappearance of the comet has been calculated. It is accompanied by a curious diagram. The title of the work from which it is taken is "Prodigiorum atque ostentorum tam cœlestium quam terrestrium Chronicon ab exordio mundi usque ad nostra tempora." I give the passage and annex a translation, as strictly literal as it was in my power to make it:—



"Apparuit sub initio Martij anno 1556 Cometes stella, æqualis ferme lunæ dimidio, cum crinibus non usque adeo longis, nec constantibus, sed velut in incendijs rutilantibus, ut in tædis dum ventus fiat. Fusca erat, rubens ac turbida. Quinta die Martij erat iuxta medium Libræ, cum illam primum vidimus. Non vero in ipso mundi polo, antea sexaginta partibus ab æquinoctij circulo declinabat. Mota igitur est toto quadri duo septuaginta quinque partibus ab Oriente in Occidentem, & triginta a Meridie in Septentrionem. Tum vero assidue pluit, & cum desinunt pluvia, non apparebat. In Germania apparuit usque ad medium Aprilis. A fine Martij subsequuta est perpetua serenitas usque ad vigesimam septimam Aprilis, & tantus calor ut Iunio mense similis esset temporis constitutio. Significat autem Astrologorum iudicio, dissidia circa leges, propter colorem, crines, & motum & etiam morbos pestiferos, præsertim in Germania & Pannonia, Asiaque ac Grecia, apudque Boreales nationes. Hujus autem Comete motum, cum circulo mundi ac stellarum fixarum observatione, ut Viennæ Austriæ à Paulo Fabricio Laubensi ad duodecim dies visus atque descriptus est, in Astrologie candidatorum gratiam adijcere placuit."

#### TRANSLATION.

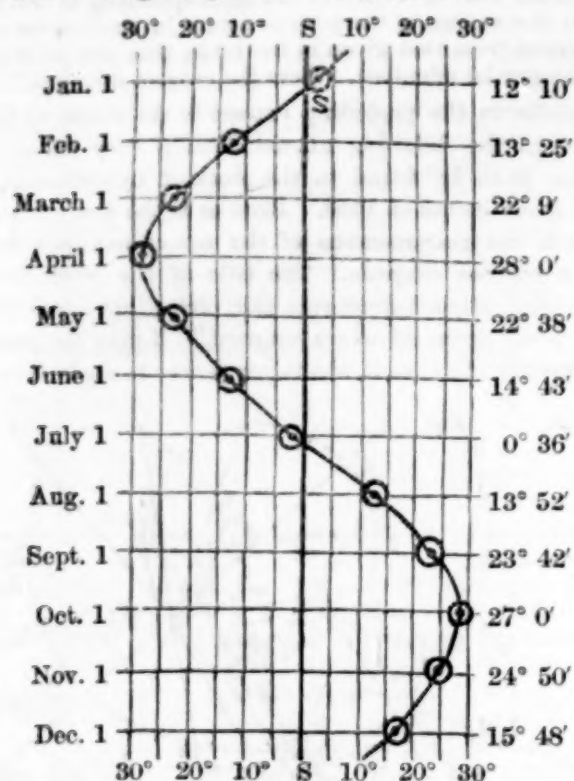
"About the beginning of March, in the year 1556, there appeared a comet star, which was nearly equal to half the size of the moon, and with hairs that were not so long, nor so constantly blazing; but were as if sparkling flames, such as come from torches when the wind is blowing. It was of a darkish red, and turbid colour. On the 5th day of March it was near to the middle of Libra; that is, when we first saw it. It was, in sooth, not in the self-same pole of the world before it declined sixty parts from the circle of the equinox. It moved, therefore, on the whole forty-two seventy-five parts from the East to the West, and thirty from South to the North. At that time truly it never ceased raining; and when the rains stopped it no longer appeared. It was visible in Germany up to the middle of April. From the end of March there was continuous serenity until the 27th of April, and such heat that the temperature was like to what prevails in the month of June. But in the judgment of astrologers it signifies a dissension about laws, on account of its colour, hair, and motion; and also pestiferous diseases, especially in Germany, Pannonia, Asia, Greece, and the northern nations. The motion of this comet, along with an observation of the circles and fixed stars, has been seen at Vienna in Austria, by Paulus Fabricius Laubensis, and described for the benefit of candidates in astrology."

[NOTICE.—Under the head of "Astronomical News," we purpose giving, from time to time, accounts of the latest discoveries in the science; more especially, however, we propose giving ephemerides of new comets and planets. These bodies, the former in particular, often being favourably placed for observation only for limited periods of time, it is of the utmost importance that immediate observations should be made. There are many private observatories in this country, more or less dormant, because their owners do not know what to do, beyond affording amusement for their own circle of friends. By publishing in the columns of this journal reliable positions of new comets and planets, we apprehend that important benefits may be conferred on astronomy, if such of our readers as possess instruments will, on their part, second our efforts.—ED. LONDON REVIEW.]



## CELESTIAL PHENOMENA—JULY.

At present, the aspect of the sun's disc has occupied so large a share of the attention of astronomers, that the accompanying graphical table will in all probability meet a want among many of our heliographical readers.



The solar equator is inclined at only 7° to the plane of the ecliptic, and in such an altitude, that we see the most of his southern pole about the equinox in March, passing thence to the north side of his equator, nearly at the summer solstice in June. From this twofold obliquity of the poles of the Earth and the Sun to the plane of the ecliptic, the Sun's south pole at the edge of his disc oscillates from side to side of the apparent southern point of his disc, through the year, in a very irregular manner, being sometimes to left of it and sometimes to the right, as the table indicates, S representing the south pole, and s the southern point of his disc. From the slight obliquity of 7°, the pole can hardly be distinguished at any time from the edge of the disc, and even the equator is at no time more removed than one-twelfth of the radius from a diameter of it; and in estimating roughly the heliographic position of a spot observed upon the disc, it should be constantly borne in mind that even so low a parallel of solar latitude as 30° already appears removed at half a radius distance from the equator, while the parallel of 62° of latitude appears within one-ninth part of the same of the pole.

Mercury, the planet of our system nearest the Sun, was known to the early Egyptians as "The Twinkler," in distinction to the more conspicuous lustre of the rest of the tribe then known, and its present favourable position for observation, about an hour after sunset, is among the rare occasions of its apparition. Its mean sidereal period, gathered by Cassini, from 382 revolutions performed in 92 years, from Nov. 7, 1632, to Nov. 9, 1723, on which dates it was well observed to transit the sun in the same point of the heavens, is about 88 days 23 hours, from which a synodic period of about 116 days is inferred, interposing an interval of about four months between its successive returns to the same configuration with respect to the sun. From the extreme eccentricity of its orbit, amounting to one-fifth, by which its aphelion and perihelion distances differ as greatly as forty-four and twenty-nine millions of miles, and from its great obliquity, and apparitions so rare in some conditions of atmosphere, that Copernicus himself is said to have lamented on his deathbed that he never saw it, the tables of Mercury have, during the whole history of astronomy, been the failing point of its prophecies, and while errors of 4°, 5°, and 7° of longitude occurred in the best computations of its transit in the beginning of the last century, it is not until the present advance of knowledge that we can hope to await tranquilly the sunrise (at a quarter past seven) of the coming 12th of November, when Mercury will be seen at the centre of his transit. He will also be observed to leave the disc punctually in two hours after that time, if clouds do not intervene to veil the phenomenon, as invidiously as is recorded by John Bevis, of the Greenwich Observatory, in a volume of the "Philosophical Transactions," who, on May 17th, 1837, was thus deprived, by only one-tenth of the diameter of Venus, of the singular spectacle of a transit of Mercury across the body of that planet.

The mean greatest elongation of Mercury is about 22°. His period of rotation has not been satisfactorily assigned, and his density is only presumed to exceed that of the earth by about one-eighth or one-fifth, but M. Le Verrier's recent calculations, having for their object the reconciliation of the numerical values of the periods and mean distances of the planets to the well-known law of Kepler (from which they are minutely discordant), by the assumption of a ring of revolving planets within the orbit of Mercury and coincident with that of the earth is expected to throw light upon this point. The diameter of Mercury is nearly 3,000 miles.

With Donati's comet of 1858 the present forms the second disappointment to the expectations of the appearance of Mr. Hind's comet, for coincidence with which, its orbit, so far as it is at present known, is too oblique to the ecliptic. So signal a visitor cannot fail to aid our speculations on the connection or disconnection of periodic and non-periodic comets with our system, of which little yet is known beyond the direct motion that attends the numerous faint elliptic comets of small obliquity, as distinguished from the indifferent motion direct and retrograde that has attended the far more numerous and brilliant class of non-recurring comets at all obliquities alike.

The most remarkable nebulae and clusters visible this month to the best advantage are Messiers 5th, 13th, 12th, and 10th.

	h. m.		
M. 5	R.A. 15 10	N.P.D. 87 16	
M. 13	— 16 36	— 53 13	
M. 12	— 16 38	— 91 38	
M. 10	— 16 48	— 93 58	

All of them magnificent globular clusters; and that of Hercules, between  $\eta$  and  $\zeta$ , is now in the zenith at 10 p.m.

	h. m.		
The omega nebula	M. 17 18 11	106 18	
The triffid neb. of Mason	17 52	113 1	
The dumb-bell nebula	M. 27 19 52	67 44	
The annular neb. in Lyra	M. 57 18 47	57 11	

Are all most curious and interesting objects to telescopic observers.

## ON THE WEATHER DURING THE MONTH OF JUNE FOR THE PAST TWENTY-ONE YEARS IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF LONDON.

(By JAMES GLAISHER, F.R.S., &c., Royal Observatory, Greenwich.)

Years.	Mean Reading of Barometer at the Level of the Sea.	Highest Reading of the Thermometer.	Lowest Reading of the Thermometer.	Range.	Mean Temperature of the Air.	Difference of Average of Twenty Years.	Degree of Humidity.	Rain.
	In.	°	°	°	°	°		Number of days it fell.
1841	29.98	78.5	40.3	38.2	59.4	-2.8	77	14
1842	30.08	87.4	44.7	42.7	62.9	+3.7	70	8
1843	29.88	77.3	42.9	34.4	56.3	-2.9	82	16
1844	29.99	87.6	43.4	44.2	60.7	+1.5	68	10
1845	29.96	86.0	43.8	42.2	60.7	+1.5	82	15
1846	30.05	91.1	49.4	41.7	65.3	+6.1	70	8
1847	29.98	80.4	41.0	39.4	59.0	-1.2	73	17
1848	29.82	78.4	38.7	39.7	58.5	-0.7	76	23
1849	30.05	80.7	38.6	42.1	67.9	-1.3	75	7
1850	30.07	85.1	38.2	48.9	60.8	+1.6	67	8
1851	30.07	87.0	38.5	49.5	59.9	-0.3	70	12
1852	29.74	72.7	41.0	31.7	56.1	-3.1	75	23
1853	29.90	81.0	42.3	38.7	59.2	-1.0	68	13
1854	29.91	78.5	41.4	37.1	55.7	-3.5	82	12
1855	30.04	83.5	39.3	44.2	56.9	-2.3	71	9
1856	30.05	83.1	41.1	42.0	58.5	-0.7	79	7
1857	30.03	92.7	38.8	53.9	61.8	+2.6	72	9
1858	30.09	94.5	45.3	49.2	64.9	+5.7	67	5
1859	29.94	81.3	43.5	37.8	61.4	+2.2	77	8
1860	29.78	74.0	43.5	30.5	54.8	-4.4	82	23
1861	29.96	81.8	42.9	38.9	59.1	-0.1	81	17

The pressures of the atmosphere are shown in the second column. Their average is 29.97 inches; in the month just passed it was 29.96 inches, differing .01 inch only from the average. The pressure, 29.96 inches, has been exceeded twelve times during the preceding twenty-one years, been equalled once, and less in seven instances; the highest was 30.08 inches in 1842, and the lowest 29.74 inches in 1852.

The highest temperatures of the air in each month are shown in column 3. In the month just passed it was 81.8°, being 7.1° higher than in 1860, and a little higher than in 1859; in the year 1858 it was 94.5°; in 1852 it was only 72.7°.

The lowest temperatures of the air are recorded in the next column. In 1861 it was 42.9°; it has been exceeded seven times only during the twenty-one years; the highest was 49.4° in 1846, and the lowest was 36.2° in 1850.

The range of temperature in the month was 38.9°, being greater than in the two preceding years; in 1857 it was as large as 53.9°, and in 1860 was 30.5° only.

The mean high day temperature for June, 1861, was 70.8°; the mean of the preceding twenty-one years was 71.2°; therefore the high day temperature differed but very little from its average value.

The mean low night temperature was 51.3°; the mean for twenty-one years is 50.2°; therefore the nights have been 1.1° warmer than usual.

The mean temperature of the air is noted in column 6. The mean for twenty-one years is 59.2°; in the month just passed it was 59.1°, being 0.1° only below the average; when compared with the average of the preceding ninety years, it is found to have been 0.4° higher; in the year 1846 it was 65.3°, and in 1860 it was 54.8°. The temperature of the past month may, therefore, be considered as that exactly applying to the month.

The departures of the monthly means from the average are shown in the next column, those numbers to which the sign — is affixed indicate that they were below, and those to which the sign + is affixed indicate that they were above the average by the amounts stated opposite each; in the month just passed it was, as before stated, 0.1° below, in 1860 it was 4.4° below, in the year 1846 it was 6.1° above, and in the following year it was 1.2° below the average; thus these two successive Junes differed no less than 7.3° from each other.

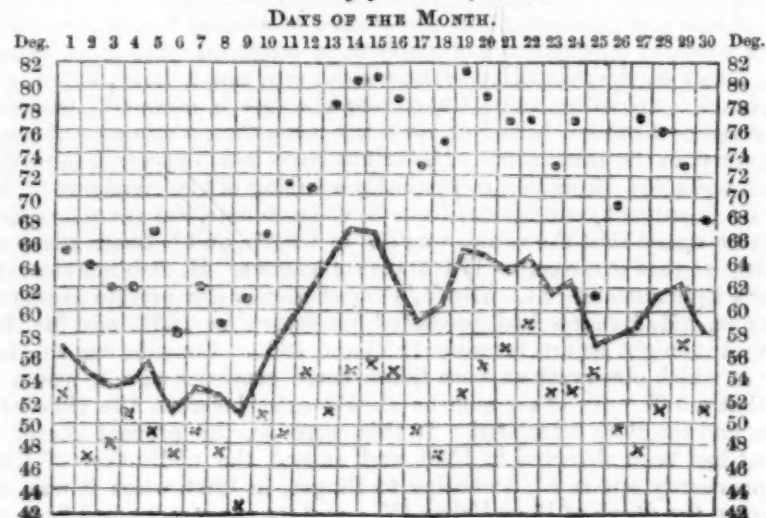
The mean temperature of the dewpoint for June, 1861, or that temperature at which the water present in the air, in the invisible shape of vapour, would saturate the air was 53.2°. If the temperature of the air had been 53.2°, the air would have been quite damp, but it was 59.1°, or 5.9° higher.

The degree of humidity in each month is shown in the next column; in the month just passed it was 81; on a scale supposing the air when quite dry, to be represented by 0.2, quite wet by 100, the mean of the preceding twenty years was 74; therefore the air was somewhat more charged with moisture than usual.

The number of days rain fell is noted in the next column. In the month just passed it was 17; in the preceding year the number was 23. The falls, however, were, for the most part, genial, and were nearly evenly spread over the month.

The fall of rain is noted in column 10. For 1861 it was 2.0 inches. The heaviest fall was 5.8 inches in 1860, and the least was in 1849, 0.2 inch; the mean for the preceding twenty years is 3.0°; therefore the rain-fall during the past month was 1.0 inch less than usual.

Diagram, showing the maximum, the average, and the minimum temperature of the air daily for June, 1861.





The accompanying diagram will show at a glance the distribution of temperature during the month. The continuous black line shows the mean, or average temperature for the twenty-four hours from midnight to midnight, the dot above the line shows the highest temperature reached during the day, and the cross below the line shows the lowest temperature reached during the night. It will be seen that the temperature rose to 82°, nearly, on the 19th; this is a point higher than the temperature reached in either of the two preceding Junes.

The average temperature for June, from observations taken during the past twenty years, was 59·2°; and if the wavy line be compared with an imaginary line passing about midway between the lines 58° and 60°, it will be seen that till the 11th, and on the 25th, 26th, and 27th days, the temperature was below the average, and it was above on the remaining sixteen days of the month. The temperature rose from 60° on the 12th, to 67° on the 14th, and fell to 59° by the 17th; it again rose to 65° by the 20th; and from this day till the end of the month there was an alternate rise and fall. The temperature on the 14th day averaged 67°; this was 8·4° above the highest temperature in June, 1860, and was exceeded by one day only in June, 1859, viz., the 26th, the mean temperature of which was 69°.

The prevailing direction of the wind was NE.; the relative frequency of the winds, reduced to the four cardinal points, was N. 9; E. 12; S. 5; W. 4.

The characteristics of the month of June were an average barometric pressure and temperature, a rather humid atmosphere, a slight deficiency of rain, but that which fell was nearly evenly distributed. These characteristics are those of a fine month.

The mean temperature of the month of June, in groups of ten years, since 1771, is as follows:—

The mean for the ten years ending 1779 was 58·4	The mean for the ten years ending 1829 was 58·2
" 1789 — 58·3	" 1839 — 58·8
" 1799 — 56·3	" 1849 — 59·6
" 1809 — 57·6	" 1859 — 59·3
" 1819 — 56·8	

#### LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

At the Ethnological Society on Tuesday, J. Craufurd, Esq., in the chair, a very animated meeting took place on the occasion of a paper by Capt. Richard Burton, "Ethnological Notes on M. du Chaillu's Explorations and Adventures in Equatorial Africa."

A paper on the tribes of Western Equatorial Africa was read on the 14th of May by our latest celebrity, the enterprising M. du Chaillu. A few remarks upon the subject of the eastern races of the same continent may be not uninteresting as tending to prove that throughout the vast breadth of the peninsula the same language, the same manners and customs, the same religion and tone of thought—briefly, the same ethnic development prevails.

The superiority of the Mpongwe race to those occupying about the same latitude on the eastern coast is remarkable. The American missions at Baraka and in Corisco are teaching "geography, arithmetic, history, writing and English lessons." The Nuremberg mission, established by Dr. Krapf in 1844 among the Wanyika, has, with equal zeal, by no means been equally successful. The greater degeneracy of the eastern tribes may be explained by the prevalence of the slave trade in the most ancient times. The Periplus attributed to Arrian, which were certainly not written after A.D. 200, proves that Greek factories were then established along the coast, and that the "larger bodies" were brought from the regions around the modern Kilwa.

The trading difficulties in the east are a counterpart of those in the west. For instance, the Wakamba living fourteen marches north-west of Mombasa have ever been obliged to use the Wanyika as middlemen, and, as might be expected, have been pitifully cheated. The injurious "trust system" extends not only to the semi-Semitic Somal, but also to the coffee track of Southern Arabia. M. du Chaillu has known several days to be spent in selling a piece of ivory. He had known six weeks. It is pleasant to remark that some of those "Mpongwe fellows" have worked out the dogma that "honesty is the best policy," despite threats of poison and charges of witchcraft.

Another trait familiar to me is that recorded of Njogoni, the royal friend of M. du Chaillu, who after being voted king, underwent a peculiar preliminary investiture. The absolute identity of custom in Unyamwezi—the Land of the Moon—will be seen in the account of the author's last journey to the Lake Regions of Central Africa (vol. ii. p. 31), the passage from which was quoted.

In their other habits the Mpongwe so nearly resemble the eastern tribes, such as their gross festivities, hard drinking, their polygamy, their attributing all illness to witchcraft, their tedious salutations, their improvidence.

M. du Chaillu's account of oratory among the Mbúshá struck him also at once as familiar. He says, "The speaker delivers himself in short sentences, each containing one of the many hundred memorable facts of the day's journey. All sit round, silent and open-mouthed, and at intervals the chief men give little grunts of approbation." And this may be compared with Capt. Burton's account of a Somali speech, in his "First Footsteps in East Africa" (p. 189).

With respect to the horrid cannibalism of the Fanos, it forms no exception to the rule usually laid down respecting anthropophagy. The so-called unnatural practice is ever most prevalent in those parts where, as in New Zealand, animal food is deficient. On the eastern parts of the continent there are two cannibal tribes, the Wadoe and the Wabembe. The former occupy the same position upon the Barbarians Sinus assigned by Ptolemy (lib. iv. c. 8) to his anthropophagi. According to their own legend, however, the practice is modern; when weakened by the attacks of their neighbours, the Wakamba, they began to roast and eat slices from the bodies of the fallen, in presence of the foe, who, daring to die, but unable to face the idea of becoming food, fled the country.

M. du Chaillu has rightly defined polygamy in Africa as a political rather than a domestic or social institution. A "judicious culture of the marriage tie" is necessary amongst savages and barbarians, where, unlike in Europe, a man's relations and connections are his only friends; besides which, a multitude of wives ministers to the man's pride and influence, state and pleasure. As customary amongst polygamists, from Moslem to Mormon, there is a head wife—usually the first married. When the mistress of the house ages, she takes charge of the girlish brides who are placed by her husband under her guardianship.

Quarrels and wars about the sex are common throughout Africa; yet there is the greatest laxity of morals. In Unyamwezi, as in the Ashira country, a husband seldom interferes with the property which he has made over to his wife, and she guards her rights with a truly feminine love and jealousy. The women cultivate and plant the ground, and after feeding their husbands, expend the surplus products in the beads and baubles which compose their bijouterie. The Bakalari, like the Somal, will not marry a woman of the same family or clan as themselves; a similar institution is observable amongst the North American Indians, who reject all of the same totem. The idea is doubtless the danger of consanguinity; for most Africans, who will not take to wife a fiftieth cousin, will marry, like the Jews, their brothers' widows.

The gorilla is sufficiently connected with the Ethnological Society to deserve a few words of notice. One book informs us that the first discovery has been claimed for Hanno, the Carthaginian (Periplus, ch. 18), and that the earliest word was Γορίλλαι, a term applied by the ἑρμῆνες, or native interpreters. The learned Klugius has unwisely noted "sive dubio ea est simiarum species que orang-outang vocatur." M. du Chaillu proposes, unsatisfactorily enough the author thinks, to read chimpanzee. The islanded lake described by the old Tyrian is apparently apocryphal; but his account of the anthropoid's ferocity is peculiarly appropriate. Captain Burton suggested that the word gorilla was a Grecized form after the true classic fashion of an African root; the author referred to calls it in the Mpongwe dialect "ngina," and in the Mbúsha "nguyla," which might most naturally have become gorilla.

The religion of the Africans is ever interesting to those of a maturer faith, as the study of childhood is pleasing to those of riper years. Orthodoxly, Fetishism is held to be a degradation of the pure and Adamic dispensation, even as the negro is supposed to represent the accursed and degraded descendants of Ham and Canaan. The author could not, however, but look upon Fetishism as the first dawn of a belief in things not seen,—as the adoration, or rather the propitiation, of natural objects animate and inanimate, to which certain mysterious influences are attributed.

Many other salient points of ethnic similarity between Eastern and Western Africa were glanced at. The languages are clearly of the same family; the syntax is one, and in the Mpongwe many of the words are familiar to me. They belong to that great South African group whose special characteristics are euphonic alliteration and the inflection of words by performatives. M. du Chaillu's failure in reaching the cataract of Samba Nagoshi, when he heard its roar, is perfectly characteristic. The author recognized in his accounts the force of ridicule upon the negro's childlike mind, his hatred to be laughed at, his mild jokes, and his fitful merriment, and his wayward gloom. The habit of tasting food and water before the guests is a general custom—the fearful prevalence of poison accounts for it. The mbundu, or narcotic poison of ordeal, extends wide over the country. The African's peculiar courage evidently excited Du Chaillu's curiosity. He remarks their bravery in the hunt, their genuine and never-failing cowardice in the fight, and that, having little to lose, they most dread the loss of life. In all the author's travels he had observed the same; it is only the civilized man that can throw away life as if he could recover it. The plagues of flies and ants, which some have deemed exaggerated, has been portrayed by all African travellers. In East Africa, the kendo or bell is not the insignia of kingship; but it is extensively used by ivory carriers, the chiefs of the caravan—the waganga, or witch doctors, also wear strings of kiungi, or little bells.

In the West African, as in the Eastern, exaggeration is the characteristic of the mind; it is probably the effect of the wild, rank, gigantic scenery upon the senses, the avenues of all human knowledge. Albinos are common in all tribes where they are not murdered.

After saying thus much for the West African explorer, who so unexpectedly and so agreeably appeared amongst us, the author took exception to a single sin of omission in his entertaining work—the want of an exact orthography. For instance, the word Nshiego. If it is to be pronounced Kshigo, it wants no e; if Nshiego, the i is *de trop*. The African, as the Asiatic traveller, should be expected to choose his system; it is no matter which, but it is essential that there should be one. That founded by Sir William Jones appears the best, because of most general applicability; moreover, any corrector of the press could master it. It was preferred by our old Hebraists, who translated the Pentateuch and the Prophets: they wrote Jerusalem, not Jeroosalem, or Jerousalem; and its essential value has been proved by the host of modern modifications proposed by savans and missionaries.

This paper will, the author trusted, satisfy the most querulous that M. du Chaillu has well and veraciously studied the new and curious races of whom he has treated. For himself, he must be allowed to offer his best thanks; every page produced upon his mind the effect of the bugle upon the cast charger after a year or two in the cab-shafts of civilization. And he ventured to express a hope, that at some future day he might be permitted to appear before the Ethnological Society as an eye-witness of, and not as merely an analogical testimony to, the truthfulness of the picturesque and varied pages which have caused such a sensation on both shores of the Atlantic.

The Chairman in calling upon the meeting to thank Capt. Burton for his Paper, said M. du Chaillu's book, there could be no doubt, was genuine and truthful.

Mr. Simmonds stated that he had a brother-in-law, the owner of large factories at Gaboon, who having been there for years, of course, had much experience of the country. Some two or three years since his brother wrote to him, and in his letters referred to Mr. Paul du Chaillu; and when he heard of this meeting he looked out these letters for the sake of their incidental testimony in favour of M. du Chaillu, who has been so much calumniated. These extracts showed what M. du Chaillu was then, and how he was esteemed in Africa; and he thought something could be said against the insinuations brought against M. du Chaillu, as to his non-penetration into the interior of the country; there is, of course, very much difficulty in proving some statements; for M. du Chaillu was doubtless unaccompanied by any white man. Mr. Simmonds had letters from his brother containing facts infinitely more startling than anything in M. du Chaillu's book, and which, if published, would be looked upon as greater improbabilities.

#### EXTRACT, No. 1.

"Brig Coquette, becalmed, Nov. 4th, 1858.

"An enterprising naturalist with whom I am acquainted, Mr. Paul Duchailu (a Frenchman), will shortly be in England with a collection of rare birds and animals, many discovered by him; as the Koulou-Comba, a new species of ape, the size of a man; the ivory eater, of which I forget the native name; a new species of pheasant, &c., &c. I will endeavour to get him to call on you. He has travelled where no white man ever penetrated before."

"R. B. WALKER."

#### EXTRACT, No. 2.

"Gaboon, W. Africa, May 3rd, 1859.

"Mr. Paul Duchailu, the West African Nimrod, will shortly leave the coast for the United States, and thence to London. I shall give him a letter of introduction to you, and have advised him to get you to revise his journal previous to publication. I shall consider it a favour if you will put him in the way of finding the best market for his specimens, as he deserves to be well remunerated for his trouble. I presume he is about the only European who has seen the N'Zena, or Gorilla, in its wild state, and killed it himself. He is also the discoverer of the N'Roula-n'Ramba, which I mentioned to you before, and possesses the only specimen of it yet seen by a white man, in fact the coast tribes know nothing of it, even by report. As Mr. D. will therefore be a celebrity in a small way, it will be a feather in your cap to be his cicerone, and to lionize him. I may give him a line or two to one or two other people; but I think you are the most likely to be useful to him. He is a very nice little fellow, and he will amuse you with his description of tribes and people, who never yet have been seen by another white man than himself, and who have seen no other than him. As you will see him in a few months, I will not forestall him by recording any of his adventures here. He is no boaster, and I, for one, place confidence in all he has told me, and I consider that what he relates may be relied on."

From the extracts read, the meeting will perceive that those letters were written two years before any one ever dreamed of any controversy with M. du Chaillu. His brother-in-law and M. du Chaillu were friends together in Africa, and visits were constantly passing between them. At the same time, Mr. Simmonds was in communication with Dr. Gray with reference to the skeleton of a gorilla.

The Chairman was glad to hear such excellent corroborative testimony to the veracity of M. du Chaillu's work. The abuse of his opponents had had, however,



one effect—a fine one for M. du Chaillu. Mr. Murray had thought it worth his while to publish ten thousand copies of M. du Chaillu's work, and most of these, moreover, were sold. Mr. Mudie, of Oxford-street, disposes of two hundred a day.

Mr. Consul Hanson then made at length some very excellent remarks on the topics referred to in Capt. Burton's paper.

Captain Parker Snow spoke at some length in support of M. du Chaillu's veracity as a traveller. He was now going to the scene of the death of Sir John Franklin, and he appealed for fair credence to those who spend and endanger their lives in exploration; for he (Captain Snow) might some time hence have to ask credit for what he should have to relate.

Mr. Luke Burke thought the members should not quite forget in their discussion that they formed an Ethnological Society. Most Ethnologists do not believe in Ethnology. Ethnology is the science of Races. Ethnologists very generally did not believe in races; some did not like the term. He wished the members to be consistent. Captain Burton's paper was devoted to a comparison between the East and West tribes. It was a singular fact that the particular portions of the habitable globe always found more advanced in civilization than the others, and this more especially in Europe, is the western—from north-west to south-east. The eastern portion is less so. The same with respect to Asia—the same of America. Along the Andes the inhabitants are civilized; towards the eastern portion they are barbarous.

M. Paul du Chaillu made a few remarks on the existence of cannibalism.

Mr. Malone had a painful duty to perform, but as his pursuits were of an analytical nature, all facts attracted his attention, particularly those connected with the "Gorilla." He looked at M. du Chaillu's statements with a jealous eye, but he had not read the entire work, only extracts in the *London Review*, and considered there were more than common grounds for testing the accuracy of M. du Chaillu's narration. Now M. du Chaillu states that the natives make harp-strings from the roots of trees, instead of the intestines of animals. He wanted to know, in fact he asked M. du Chaillu, if he had ever seen such a thing, and if the string vibrated, because that would be contrary to all usual and preconceived notions of sound. Stones will vibrate, so will wood, so will iron. He certainly knew nothing of the matter himself, but as it had been publicly brought forward, he thought the truth should not be shirked by M. du Chaillu. He (Mr. Malone) said he was not a friend of Dr. Gray, but a friend of a friend of that gentleman. The gentlemen who have spoken have made a good-natured appeal for M. du Chaillu, but why should we be compelled to adopt it? M. du Chaillu's book is in fact not his book, it is a compilation, nor is he the artist. M. du Chaillu is only answerable for what he communicated, it is the compiler's duty to make the whole good and readable. The publisher too, could he vouch for M. du Chaillu's statements? Why does M. du Chaillu want defending? The gentlemen who have spoken in his defence only speak about the West Coast. They do not pretend to know anything about the Eastern Coast—perhaps some one can explain that mystery. In this he (Mr. Malone) did not charge M. du Chaillu with the mis-statements, but some one has made them. The position is untenable and must be abandoned.

The Chairman here requested Mr. Malone to keep to the subject of the paper; and after a few remarks from M. du Chaillu,

Captain Burton said that in Eastern Africa there is a harp made of the fibres of a plant twisted like fishing-lines;

Mr. Malone said that Captain Burton had contradicted M. du Chaillu. The style of the book tells us that it is not verbatim.

Mr. Simmons never saw one of the harps mentioned by the last speaker; but the fac-simile of one of the instruments described by M. du Chaillu was sent by his brother-in-law to the Kew museum.

Mr. Luke Burke thought the remarks on M. du Chaillu's work were utterly unjustifiable. No charge should be made without proof to support it. It is wonderful how keen scientific men are in finding faults with general travellers; and yet these scientific men could listen to the story of the Aztecs exhibited by the Wizard of the North.

The Chairman said, M. du Chaillu did not object to fair and open criticism; but he did object to the bitterness and acrimony with which the question had been treated.

Mr. Emimi (a Christian Syrian) stated, that there was a well-known book in the Arabian language, which has since been translated into Latin, wherein is given a description of a famine in Egypt, when food was so scarce, that the people were compelled to eat their own children, and afterwards, as time passed on, and provisions became more plentiful, the custom had become so universal, that it was continued long after the necessity for it ceased, and eventually a law was passed prohibiting the use by them of human flesh, and many had been beheaded for continuing the practice.

The Chairman then announced that the meetings were adjourned until November.

At the meeting of the Geological Society, the last for this season, seven papers were read. The most interesting was one "On the Lines of Deepest Water around the British Isles," by the Rev. R. Everest, F.G.S.

By drawing on a chart a line traversing the deepest soundings along the English Channel and the Eastern Coast of England and Scotland, continuing it along the 100-fathom line on the Atlantic side of Scotland and Ireland, and connecting it with the line of deepest soundings along St. George's Channel, an unequal-sided hexagonal figure is described around the British Isles, and a pentagonal figure around Ireland. A hexagonal polygon may be similarly defined around the Isle of Arran. These lines were described in detail by the author, who pointed out that they are limited areas similar to the polygonal form which stony or earthy bodies take in shrinking, either in the process of cooling or in drying. The relations of the 100-fathom-line to the promontories, the inlets, and general contour of the coast were dwelt upon; and the bearings that certain lines drawn across the British Isles from the projecting angles of the polygon appear to have on the strike and other conditions of the strata were described. After some remarks on the probable effect that shrinkage of the earth's crust must have on the ejection of molten rock, the author observed that, in his opinion, the action of shrinking is the only one we know of that will afford any solution of the phenomena treated of in this paper, namely—long lines of depression, accompanied by long lines of elevation, often, as in the case of the British Isles, Spain and Portugal, and elsewhere, belonging to parts of huge polygons broken up into small ones, as if the surface of the earth had once formed part of a basaltic causeway.

The Ordinary Monthly Meeting of the Entomological Society of London was held on the 1st instant, and was extremely well attended. G. R. Waterhouse, Esq., V.P., occupied the chair.

Sir John Harsey exhibited some splendid Indian insects of all orders, being a portion of the collection made by the veteran general during his recent service in that country.

Mr. Baly exhibited the type specimens of new species of *Hispida*, collected in China by Mr. Bowring, and described in the "Catalogue of the *Hispida* in the British Museum," lately prepared by him.

Mr. F. Smith exhibited a single specimen of *Bracula ceca*, for many years well known on the continent as a parasite on the Honey-bee; but the example now shown, recently found in Devonshire on *Apis ligurica*, is the only recorded instance of its occurrence in Britain.

Mr. Stevens exhibited some fine *Lepidoptera*, sent from the Cape of Good Hope by Mr. R. Trimen. He announced that Mr. T. was about to publish a work on the *Rhopalocera* of Southern Africa.

Mr. Desorgius communicated a paper on undescribed species of *Bassi*, lately detected by him in this country.

Mr. McLachlan read a paper on the supposed influences of the food of the larvæ in causing variations in *Lepidoptera*, in which the author maintained that no such influences existed.

A cordial vote of thanks was passed to W. Wilson Saunders, Esq., for his hospitable reception of the members of the Society on the occasion of the field excursion to Reigate on the 21st ult.

The publication of the Ninth Part of the current volume of the Society's "Transactions" was announced.

## NECROLOGY OF EMINENT PERSONS.

### SIR W. OGILVIE, BART.

On Wednesday, February 20th, at Christ Church, New Zealand, Sir William Ogilvie, Bart., of Carnhousie, Banffshire. The deceased baronet, who resided for many years in Brompton, and Manor-street, Chelsea, and had recently emigrated to New Zealand, was the son of the late Sir William Ogilvie, Bart., of Boyne, co. Banff, by Christian, daughter of the Rev. John Patison, of Edinburgh, and was born May 28th, 1810. He succeeded his father in the title in 1824, and served for some years in Her Majesty's 16th Regiment of Foot. The late baronet married, October 27, 1838, Augusta Porter, daughter of James Grange, Esq., of the Treasury, who survives as his widow. Sir William was the head of one branch of the old Scottish house of Ogilvy, and claimed the dormant barony of Banff and the earldom of Findlater in the peerage of Scotland.

### RIGHT HON. SIR J. PATTESON.

On Friday, the 28th ult., at Feniton Court, near Honiton, Devon, the Right Hon. Sir John Patteson, Knt., aged 71. The deceased gentleman was the nephew of John Patteson, Esq., some time M.P. for Norwich, being second son of the late Rev. Henry Patteson, some time of Drinkstone, Suffolk, by Sophia, daughter of R. A. Lee, Esq., Banker, of London. He was born at Norwich, or, according to another account, at Coney Weston, Suffolk, in 1790, and was educated on the foundation at Eton, whence he proceeded in due course as scholar to King's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1813, and M.A. three years later. As, at that time, "King's men" were not allowed to compete for the honours of the University Tripos, his name does not occur among the Wranglers or Senior Optimes of his year; nor indeed do we find that he gained any of the University Prizes, which were open to men of his college, except the Davies Scholarship. He left the university, however, with the reputation of an elegant and cultivated classical scholar; and, in 1821, was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple, and for some years went the Northern Circuit. In 1830 he was knighted on being promoted to a puisne judgeship in the Court of King's Bench, from which he retired, on a well-earned pension, in the year 1852, when he was sworn a Privy Councillor, and since that time he had rendered valuable service in the Judicial Committee. The deceased judge was twice married; first, in 1818, to Elizabeth, daughter of G. Lee, Esq., and, secondly, in 1824, to Frances Duke, daughter of the late James Coleridge, Esq., of Heath's Court, Devon, and sister of Mr. Justice Coleridge, by whom (who died in 1842) he had issue. The deceased judge took a warm interest in all matters which concerned the interests of the Universities and of the Church of England, and his eldest son, a Fellow of Merton College, Oxford, has just been nominated first Bishop of Polynesia.

### L. H. BAMFORD-HESKETH, ESQ.

On Sunday, June 30th, at No. 1, Portland-place, London, aged 72, Lloyd Hesketh Bamford-Hesketh, Esq., of Gwrch Castle, Denbighshire. He was the eldest son of the late R. Bamford-Hesketh, Esq., by Frances, daughter and heiress of the late Rev. John Lloyd, of Gwrch Castle. He was born in 1788, and succeeded his father in the Denbighshire estates in 1816. He was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1809. The deceased gentleman, who served the office of High Sheriff of his county in 1828, married, in 1825, Emily Esther Anne, youngest daughter of the 1st Earl Beauchamp, by whom he has issue. He is succeeded by his son, Robert Bamford-Hesketh, who was born in 1826, and married, in 1851, Mary, eldest daughter of the late H. Jones-Bateman, Esq., of Pentre Mawr, Denbighshire.

### G. MUSGRAVE, ESQ.

On Thursday, the 27th June, in Gordon-square, London, aged 91, George Musgrave, Esq., of Shillington Manor, Beds, and Borden Hall, Kent. He was a great grandson of the late Sir Christopher Musgrave, 5th Baronet, of Eden Hall, Cumberland, and was born in 1770. He served the office of High Sheriff of Bedfordshire, in 1828. By his wife Margaret, only daughter of E. Kennedy, Esq., of Grafton, he had issue. He is succeeded at Shillington Manor by his eldest son, the Rev. George M. Musgrave, late Vicar of Borden, Kent, who was born in 1798, and married, in 1827, Charlotte Emily, youngest daughter of Thomas Oakes, Esq., of St. Nicholas Deeping, co. Lincoln (many years Senior Member of Council at Madras), by whom he has a son and heir, Edgar, born in 1835. The Rev. G. M. Musgrave is known as an accomplished artist, and as the author of six volumes on France, and the first who has translated the Psalms into blank verse. He is Vice-President of several literary Institutes, and was an Honorary Examiner at the Royal Academy of Arts. The Musgraves were among the families who came over with the Conqueror, and they obtained a grant of Scaleby Castle, Cumberland.

### D. BARCLAY, ESQ.

On Monday, the 1st inst., at Roskrow, near Penryn, Cornwall, aged 76, David Barclay, Esq., of Eastwick Park, Surrey. He was the second son of the late Robert Barclay, Esq., of Bury Hill, Surrey, by Rachael, daughter of the late John Garney, Esq., of Norwich, and a brother of the late Mr. Charles Barclay, M.P., of Bury Hill, who died in 1855. He was born in 1784, and was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for Surrey. He sat for some time in the House of Commons, previous to 1837, as M.P. in the liberal interest, for Penryn, and afterwards for Sunderland, and was a zealous supporter of reform in Church and State. He



married in 1818, Maria Dorothea, eldest daughter of the late Sir Hedworth Williamson, Bart., of Whitburn Hall, co. Durham, by whom he has left a son and successor, Mr. Hedworth David Barclay, who was born in 1820, and married in 1857, Caroline Agnes, daughter of Henry Brereton Trelawney, Esq. The Barclays of Eastwick, represent a branch of the ancient Scottish house of Barclay of Urie.

#### C. K. MAINWARING, ESQ.

On Sunday, the 30th of June, in Cavendish-place, aged 57, Charles Kynaston Mainwaring, Esq., of Otely-park, near Ellesmere, Shropshire. He was a son of the late Rev. Charles Mainwaring, by Sarah, daughter of John Townshend, Esq., and brother of Townshend Mainwaring, Esq., of Gaelt Faenan, formerly M.P. for the Denbigh district of boroughs. He was born in 1802, and was educated at Eton and Brasenose College, Oxford. He was a Magistrate and Deputy Lieutenant for Shropshire, of which county he served as High Sheriff in 1829. By his wife Fanny, younger daughter and coheir of the late Colonel J. L. Salusbury, of Gaelt Faenan, co. Denbigh, he has left issue a son and successor, Mr. Charles Salusbury Mainwaring.

#### MISS ALEXANDER.

On Saturday, June 22, at Geneva, of consumption, Miss Alexander. She was Alice Louisa, only surviving daughter of the late Nathaniel Alexander, Esq., of Portglenone House, co. Antrim (sometime M.P. for that county), by Florinda, second daughter of R. Bagley, Esq., and granddaughter of the second Lord Castlemaine.

#### MISS BATHURST.

On Thursday, June 27, at Bruges, Miss Caroline Bathurst. She was the eldest daughter of the late Lieutenant-General Sir James Bathurst, K.C.B. (a younger son of the late Right Rev. Henry Bathurst, D.D., many years Lord Bishop of Norwich,) and the Lady Caroline Bathurst, and maternal granddaughter of the first Earl of Castle Stuart.

#### LADY G. BOURKE.

On Tuesday, the 25th ult., at Kempsford, Gloucestershire, aged 53, the Lady Georgiana Sarah Bourke. Her ladyship was the eldest daughter of the Right Hon. John William, 4th Earl of Bessborough in the Irish peerage (some time Lord Lieutenant of Ireland), by the Lady Mary Fane, 3rd daughter of John, 10th Earl of Westmoreland. She was born August 14th, 1807, and married, in June, 1839, the Rev. Sackville Gardiner Bourke, Rector of Hatherop, Gloucestershire (son of the late Hon. and Very Reverend Joseph Bourke, some time Dean of Ossory), by whom she has left a youthful family to lament her loss. Her ladyship was left a widow in 1860.

### WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

Dowager Lady Kinloch, of Eaton-place, Belgrave-square, relict of Sir A. Kinloch, Bart., of Gilmerton, East Lothian, Scotland, died on the 10th of March last, having executed her will in 1858, and a codicil in the following year, and has left personal property in the United Kingdom estimated at £140,000. Probate was granted in the London Court on the 18th of this month. The executors nominated being her ladyship's daughter, Lady Hay, wife of the Hon. and Rev. Lord Hay, Alexander Kinloch, Esq., the testatrix's grandson, and the Rev. Richard Burgess, B.D., Prebendary of St. Paul's and rector of Upper Chelsea. This lady is the widow of a Scottish baronet, who possessed very considerable landed property in his native country, Scotland. Lady Kinloch also possessed a large fortune, both in realty and personalty, in her own right, and over which she had the power of disposition. Her ladyship has left her large property, consisting of estates under settlement, as well as the above personalty, in the following manner. Sir David Kinloch, Bart., who inherits the family estates, her ladyship has left, amongst other specific bequests, the sum of £17,000, also a life interest in the residue of her personalty, which, on his decease, is to be equally divided amongst his children, to each of whom, a son and three daughters, Dowager Lady Kinloch leaves legacies of £10,000. Her ladyship also leaves to Sir David her diamond necklace and earrings, to be retained by him as heir-looms in the family, as well as some plate bearing the Kinloch arms. To her only surviving daughter, Lady Harriet, wife of the Hon. and Rev. Lord Hay, Lady Kinloch, the testatrix, has left her freehold, leasehold, and landed estates, at Newton and elsewhere, in trust for her said daughter, with power of disposition, and has further bequeathed to her said daughter Lady Hay a legacy of £17,000. To her son-in-law, the Hon. and Rev. Lord Hay, a legacy of £100 is bequeathed, and a like sum of £100 to each of her executors; also liberal bequests to her servants and to personal friends. It is very gratifying to find that Lady Kinloch has not been unmindful of the claims of those most excellent institutions which have for their object the propagation of our holy religion both at home and abroad; the sum of £200 is therefore given to each of the five following societies, viz., the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, the Church Missionary Society to Africa and to the East, the Pastoral Aid Society, and the Society for Promoting Christianity amongst the Jews. We must not, however, omit to mention that there are also some bequests left to the poor of Newton, Athelstaneford, and other parishes in which her ladyship's estates are situated, in sums varying from £100 to £20. This venerable lady, who attained to the patriarchal age of 88, was domiciled in London, leaving the keener air of her native Scottish hills for the milder regions of the south. Her advanced age and debility and infirmities generally incident thereto, probably induced her to take this step; and it is a singular fact that her ladyship survived her late husband during the lengthened period of sixty-six years.

The Most Noble George Granville, Duke and Earl of Sutherland, K.G., D.C.L., being Duke of Sutherland in the peerage of the United Kingdom and Earl of Sutherland in that of Scotland, died possessed of personalty property in England estimated at £1,000,000. His will, bearing date in 1858, with two codicils in 1859, were proved in her Majesty's Court of Probate in London, on the 27th ult. The executors are his son, now Duke of Sutherland, his brother-in-law, the Hon. Charles W. G. Howard, the Right Hon. Sir David Dundas, and George Loch, Esq., of Albemarle-street. This distinguished nobleman, who has died possessed of an immense property both in England and Scotland, has bequeathed the English portion of it, with a few exceptions, to his relict, the duchess, and their sons. To her Grace is bequeathed a sum with her jointure sufficient to create an annuity of £10,000, and there are other specific bequests; amongst them is one of a singular character, it is that of a diamond of large dimensions, of great weight, and of very considerable value; this costly gem is

bestowed on the duchess for her life, and on her decease it is to pass into the possession of the present duke. This nobleman, who now inherits the titles and family estates, takes also all the diamonds which formerly belonged to the late duke's father and mother. The testator has also conferred other bequests upon his son and heir, and appointed him the residuary legatee. To each of his other sons he bequeaths the sum of £83,000 funded property. There are many bequests of a minor description, which appear to be memorials of regard and esteem to personal friends; and there are six annuities bestowed on respective persons, which sufficiently indicate the kindness and liberality of the late duke. These annuities vary in amount, the principal one being £200. His grace has also kindly considered all his servants. This respected and distinguished nobleman died at his seat, Trentham, Staffordshire, in February last, in his 75th year. For a memoir of the late duke, we beg to refer our readers to our journal of the 9th of March last, No. 36.

Thomas Drinkwater, Esq., of Irwell House, Prestwich, Lancaster, who died at Bath on the 30th of March last, executed his will so far back as 1847, to which he added a codicil in 1854, appointing as executors his relict, together with his son-in-law, James Fitzmaurice Scott, Esq., the Rev. Henry Mildred Birch, M.A., Hon. Canon of Manchester, Rector of Prestwich, and Chaplain in ordinary to the Queen, and William Broome Parker, Esq., of Llandulas, Denbigh. The personalty was sworn under £45,000, and probate granted on the 25th ult. in the London Court. Mr. Drinkwater, whose will we have now to record, was a country gentleman of very considerable property, both real and personal. He appears to have resided principally at his seat, Irwell House, Lancashire, in retired domestic enjoyment of a country life. Mr. Drinkwater has left to his relict an immediate legacy of £1,000, also an annuity of £1,100, in addition to her jointure of £300 a year, together with the furniture, plate, and other effects. To his two daughters the testator leaves the whole of his property, real and personal, subject to the payment of the above annuity and a few legacies. These dispositions constitute the main features of the will.

Lawrence Myers, Esq., of Hanover-terrace, Regent's Park, and Leadenhall-street, merchant, died on the 28th of May last, at Norwood, leaving personal property, sworn under £50,000. His will, dated 29th June, 1858, was brought into the principal registry by Messrs. Spyer & Son, solicitors, Broad-street-buildings, and probate granted on the 24th ult., the executors nominated being Henry Fandel, Esq., Newgate-street, Robert Henderson, Esq., Mincing-lane, and Octavius Phillips, Esq., Great Tower-street, the latter gentleman alone acting. This gentleman appears to have realized a handsome property by mercantile pursuits, which he has bequeathed, with the exception of some charitable dispositions, to his relict and family. To his widow, the testator has left a life interest in the sum of £25,000, besides other bequests. To his son Joseph a life interest in £7,000, placed in the hands of trustees, which, on his son's decease, is to be divided equally amongst his son Joseph's children. To his (the testator's) daughter, Matilda Myers, a legacy of £1,000, and has appointed her, together with his two other daughters, residuary legatees of his entire estate. Mr. Myers' charitable bequests are confined to Jewish institutions, and to the poor of that persuasion, and there is the sum of £500 bestowed on the new synagogue in Great St. Helen's, the interest of which is directed to be distributed annually in the winter season.

James Harwich Oughton, Esq., formerly of Broome Park, near Canterbury, Kent, and late of Pembroke-crescent, Notting-hill, died on the 23rd of May last, having executed his will in 1857, and two codicils in 1860, which were proved in the London Court, on the 19th ult., by the executors, Henry Ravenhill, Esq., of Clapham, Surrey, and Benjamin Littlewood, Esq., of Norton House, Stourbridge, Worcester. The personal property sworn under £35,000. This is the will of a country gentleman apparently of retired habits. He has left the property of which he died possessed to his relict, and to his nephews, nieces, and some other branches of his family; there are, however, a few legacies of small amount to some personal friends, which are of course to be paid out of the estate. The testator has bequeathed to his relict an immediate legacy of £500 and an annuity of £1,000, together with the use and enjoyment of the furniture, plate, articles of vertu, works of art, carriages, horses, &c. To his nephew, Samuel Hobday Oughton, Esq., an annuity of £250. To his sister, Mrs. Catherine Hobday, an annuity of £100. Legacies and annuities to three of his nieces. The testator has directed the residue of his estate and the principal sums invested for the payment of the annuities, as they successively fall in, to be divided in twenty-two equal parts, and apportioned amongst his nephews and nieces in the manner described in the will.

Vice-Admiral Moorsom, late residing at Montague-place, Russell-square, and formerly of Edgbaston, Warwick, who died on the 26th of May last, had executed his will so far back as 1839, to which are added three codicils. The executors nominated are Mrs. Moorsom, the relict, William Maude, Esq., of Selaby Park, Durham, and Robert Benson, Esq., his son-in-law, of Craven-hill Gardens, Hyde Park. The personalty was sworn under £14,000, and probate granted in the London Court on the 25th ult. This gallant admiral had not for several years prior to his decease been actively employed in his profession, probably owing to a wound received at the battle of Copenhagen, which, we infer, incapacitated him, and which, unfortunately, was the cause of his death, at the age of 68. But his time on shore was not inertly passed, Admiral Moorsom serving the offices of Chairman and Director of the London and North Western Railway Company. The testator has left his property, real and personal, to his relict, under certain directions, giving her full power over the sum of £5,000. These directions have reference to the benefit of his children, namely five sons and three daughters. There are no other bequests contained in the will.

The Hon. and Rev. George Brodrick, M.A., Rector of Titsey, near Godstone, Surrey, died on the 29th of May last, at the age of 64, having executed his will in 1847. The executors nominated are his brothers, the Right Hon. Charles Viscount Middleton, and the Hon. and Rev. William J. Brodrick, M.A., Canon Residentiary of Wells, and Chaplain in Ordinary to her Majesty. The personal property was sworn under £40,000, and probate granted by the London Court on the 22nd ult. This rev. gentleman is of a distinguished family, being the son of the late Archbishop of Cashel, and heir presumptive to Viscount Middleton. The testator died a bachelor, and has bequeathed his property, real and personal, entirely amongst his brothers and sisters. To his brother, Lord Middleton, he leaves his real estate, together with the sum of £12,000, and has appointed him residuary legatee; to his brother, Canon Brodrick, £5,000; to his sister, Mrs. Scott, a life interest in the sum of £6,000, and then equally amongst her children; and to his sisters, the Countess Bandon, the Hon. Lady Maude, and Mrs. Tolley, wife of General Tolley, legacies of £500 each. These bequests constitute the whole of the will.



## ADVERTISEMENT.

**CRYSTAL PALACE ART-UNION**  
Closes this month. The Subscription is One Guinea for each chance in the Prize distribution, in addition to the choice of a copyright work of art, and may be paid to the undersigned, to the Agents in London and throughout the country, at the Railway book-stalls of Messrs. W. H. Smith & Sons, at the Stands on the Crystal Palace, and No. 2, Exeter Hall.

Prospectus, with wood engravings of some of the principal objects, sent on application to  
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\* As the lists close this month, subscriptions should be paid at once, to secure early copies of the works.

**SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER COLOURS**—The FIFTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION IS NOW OPEN, at their GALLERY, 5, Pall-mall East (close to the National Gallery). From Nine till Dusk.—Admittance 1s. Catalogue 6d.

JOSEPH J. JENKINS, Secretary.

WILL OPEN THIS DAY.

**EXHIBITION OF THE EIGHT HISTORICAL PICTURES**, painted by WILLIAM BELL SCOTT, for Sir W. Calvesly Trevelyan, Bart., illustrating the HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH BORDER.

Building the Roman Wall. The Spur in the Dish.  
St. Cuthbert the Hermit. Bernard Gilpin.  
Venerable Bede. Grace Darling.  
The Descent of the Doves. Our own Day.  
French Gallery, 120, Pall-Mall. Admission, One Shilling.

**MR. AND MRS. GERMAN REED, WITH MR. JOHN PARRY**, will give their entirely new and ORIGINAL ENTERTAINMENT, "OUR CARD BASKET," and the "TWO RIVAL COMPOSERS," EVERY EVENING (except Saturday) at 8; THURSDAY AND SATURDAY AFTERNOONS at 3, at the ROYAL GALLERY OF ILLUSTRATION, 14, REGENT-STREET. Unreserved seats, 1s., 2s. Stalls, 3s. Stall Chairs, 5s., can be secured at the Gallery, in advance, and at Messrs. Cramer, Beale, and Co's., 201, Regent-street.

**THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.**

Positively the last Four Nights of the OVERLAND ROUTE. To commence at Seven, with THE HAPPIEST DAY OF MY LIFE. After which, at 8, THE OVERLAND ROUTE, with AN APPEAL TO THE PUBLIC, by Mr. Charles Mathews, concluding with THE GALICIAN FETE. Friday, July 12.—The Annual Benefit of Mr. Buckstone, a new Ballet, a new Comedy, in Five Acts, entitled MY LORD AND MY LADY; OR, IT MIGHT HAVE BEEN WORSE.—Mr. C. Mathews, Mr. Howe, Mr. Buckstone; Mrs. C. Mathews, Mrs. Wilkins, &c., will appear. A Concert by Mademoiselle Parepa, with the Vocal Quartette, Mr. Buckstone's Address, and a Farce, Saturday, the New Comedy and other Entertainments.

**NEW THEATRE ROYAL, ADELPHI.**

Sole Proprietor and Manager, Mr. B. WEBSTER.—LAST SIX NIGHTS OF THE COLLEEN BAWN.—On MONDAY and during the Week, seventh time of the new Farce, entitled MR. GORILLA.—Messrs. J. L. Toole, P. Bedford, and Miss K. Kelly.—THE COLLEEN BAWN.—Messrs. Dion Boucicault, D. Fisher, Billington, Stephenson, Mrs. Dion Boucicault, Miss Woolgar, Mrs. Billington, and Mrs. Chatterley.—A TURKISH BATH.—Messrs. J. L. Toole and Paul Bedford. Commence at Seven.

**COMETS AND THEIR MYSTERIES.**

Mr. W. R. BIRT is now ready to effect engagements for the DELIVERY of his POPULAR LECTURE on COMETS, well illustrated with superior Dissolving Views of Ancient and Modern Comets, the passage of Donati's over Arcturus, with all the interesting phenomena of the magnificent one now visible.—Address (prepaid), 11A, Wellington-street, Victoria Park, London, N.E.

**EXCURSION TO BOULOGNE.—SOUTH EASTERN RAILWAY.**—TWO HOURS' SEA PASSAGE.—Leaving London on SATURDAY Evening, JULY 20, 1861, at 6.30 p.m.; arriving at Boulogne at 11.50 p.m.; returning from Boulogne on SUNDAY Evening, 21st JULY, at 10.0 p.m.; arriving in London at 4.30 a.m. the following (Monday) morning.

FARES THERE AND BACK.

Closed Carriages. First Class.  
10s. 15s.

No Passports required. A Permit Paper provided gratis. Tickets will be issued at the London Bridge Station, and at the Company's Office, 40, Regent-circus, Piccadilly, on and after the 13th instant.

C. W. EBORALL, General Manager.

**ROYAL FREE HOSPITAL, Gray's-Inn-road.**

The AID of the benevolent is earnestly solicited to enable the Committee to maintain the efficiency of this great work of charity.

Treasurer and Banker—EDWARD MASTERMAN, Esq., Nicholson-lane.

**PARALYSIS AND NERVOUS AFFECTIONS.**

A Physician, who has devoted much attention to the above, receives two or three Patients for special treatment in his house, which is delightfully situated at the sea-side, who enjoy unusual advantages.

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**ORNAMENTS for the DRAWING-ROOM, LIBRARY, &c.**—An extensive assortment of ALABASTER, MARBLE, BRONZE, and DERBYSHIRE SPAR ORNAMENTS. Manufactured and Imported by J. TENNANT, 140, Strand, London, W.C.

**GLENFIELD PATENT STARCH**, used in the Royal Laundry, and pronounced by Her Majesty's Laundress to be the finest Starch she ever used.—Sold by all Chandlers, Grocers, &c. &c.

WOTHERSPOON & CO., Glasgow and London.

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SELLING OFF.

In consequence of the Marquis of Westminster's refusal to renew the Lease of the above premises (in connection with Park-street), JOHN MORTLOCK is anxious to decrease his RICH STOCK, and is prepared to make a great allowance for cash.

250, OXFORD-STREET, and 58, PARK-STREET, near Hyde-park.

## WHEELER &amp; WILSON'S

LOCK-STITCH

## SEWING-MACHINES.

With Table, Treadle, & Hemmer, complete, for £10.

New Binders, £1 extra.

OFFICE AND SALE-ROOMS,

462, OXFORD STREET, LONDON.

This Machine makes the "Lock-Stitch," and ranks highest, on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching when done, and the wide range of its application.

The Wheeler & Wilson Sewing-Machine is the machine for all kinds of Family Sewing, and for the use of Seamstresses, Dressmakers, Tailors, Manufacturers of Shirts, Collars, Skirts, Cloaks, Mantillas, Clothing, Hats, Caps, Corsets, Linen Goods, Umbrellas, Parasols, Silk Goods, &c.

The Lock-Stitch made by this machine cannot be unravelled, and presents the same appearance upon each side of the seam, a single line of thread extending from stitch to stitch. It is formed with two threads, one upon each side of the fabric, and interlocked in the centre of it. In beauty and regularity, and in the firmness of the seam formed, it excels hand-sewing.

This Machine is recommended for the following qualities:—

1. Beauty and excellence of stitch alike upon each side of the fabric sewed.
2. Strength, firmness, and durability of seam, that will not rip nor ravel, and made with
3. Economy of thread.
4. Its attachments and range of application to purposes and materials.
5. Compactness and elegance of model and finish.
6. Simplicity and thoroughness of construction.
7. Speed, ease of operation and management, and quietness of movement.

## ECONOMY OF SEWING-MACHINES.

The WHEELER & WILSON COMPANY has prepared tables showing, by actual experiments of four different workers, the time required to stitch each part of a garment by hand, and with their Sewing Machine. Subjoined is a summary of several of the tables:—

	BY MACHINE.		BY HAND.	
	Hours.	Minutes.	Hours.	Minutes.
Gentlemen's Shirts.....	1	16	14	26
Frock Coats.....	2	38	16	35
Satin Waistcoats.....	1	14	7	19
Linen Waistcoats.....	0	48	5	14
Cloth Trousers.....	0	51	5	10
Summer Trousers.....	0	38	2	50
Silk Dress.....	1	13	8	27
Merino Dress.....	1	4	8	27
Calico Dress.....	0	57	6	37
Chemise.....	1	1	10	31
Muslin Petticoat.....	0	30	7	1
Drawers.....	0	28	4	6
Night-dress.....	1	7	10	2
Silk Apron.....	0	15	4	16
Plain Apron.....	0	9	1	26

Seams of considerable length are ordinarily sewed with the best machines, at the rate of a yard a minute, and that, too, in a manner far superior to hand-sewing.

"THE SEWING-MACHINE.—A marked characteristic of the American people is the ingenuity they display in the construction of machinery, with the view of saving or superseding human labour. The sewing-machine affords a striking example of this characteristic. In every family of the United States, down to that of the artisan, a sewing-machine is now regarded as a necessary piece of furniture, and the quantity of machines manufactured is extraordinary. In that country 'manufactures' of clothing are common, and it appears that from 100 to 400 sewing-machines are not unfrequently employed in one manufactory. Messrs. Wheeler & Wilson turn out many thousands yearly, employing several hundred hands in their construction. Their machine, called the 'Lock-stitch Sewing-Machine,' appears to be the most popular and the most generally approved. The speed of one of these machines is from 1,000 to 1,200 stitches per minute, so that an experienced person is able to do the work of from ten to twelve seamstresses."

—Ladies' Treasury.

From Mrs. S. S. RANDALL.

"I have used one of your excellent Sewing Machines in my family, and now that I begin to realize its benefits, the wonder is how I have lived without it? The machinery is so simple, and the operation so easy and beautiful, that it rivals the pianoforte in our circle. It performs every kind of family sewing in the strongest and most beautiful manner; and the needlework that formerly occupied so many weeks and months is now accomplished in a few days, leaving me time for a variety of other pursuits. I would advise all young housekeepers to select one of your Sewing Machines in preference to a piano, as no family can afford to do without this useful and beautiful article of furniture. I consider it as woman's best friend, and cordially recommend it to the ladies of the United States as a 'companion' whose value will be more and more appreciated every day of their lives."

## LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

Manufactured by the WHEELER & WILSON COMPANY. Offices and Sale-rooms—462, Oxford-street, London. Instruction gratis to every purchaser.

The attention of housekeepers, seamstresses, dress-makers, tailors, manufacturers of shirts, collars, skirts, cloaks, mantles, clothing, hats, caps, corsets, ladies' boots, linen goods, umbrellas, parasols, and silk goods, is invited to the perfect adaptation and unrivalled excellence of the Lock-stitch Sewing-machine for general purposes. They are simple in construction, efficient and durable in operation, beautiful in model and finish, fitted to adorn the parlour, and suited to the workshop, applicable alike to the family and the manufacturer. Their speed is from 1,000 to 2,000 stitches per minute, or equal in efficiency to twelve seamstresses. They will stitch, gather, hem, fell, and bind, with great rapidity, strength, and beauty. Domestic and children twelve years of age readily become proficient in their use.

Illustrated Prospectus gratis and post-free.

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## CROOKES' SPECTROSCOPE.

SPENCER BROWNING AND CO., PATENTEES.

With the kind and valuable assistance of W. Crookes, Esq., F.C.S., so well known for his successful researches upon the Spectrum, we have been enabled to produce a most efficient, portable, and convenient Instrument for use, and more economical in price than any other hitherto offered to the public.

Having made an addition to the Instrument which greatly increases its power, the price will now be £4 10s.; with higher power, and extra adjustments, £5 5s. Mounted Prism, for showing the spectra of two metals at the same time, £1.

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Warranted to show the Soda Line D double.

The size of this Instrument is only 4½ inches by 2½, 1½ inches thick, in Morocco case complete.

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Watches sent to all parts of the kingdom, free by post, or to India and the Colonies for 5s. extra.

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Established 1749.

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—BRADLEY'S ALBATUM, or White Rouge, free from Mercury and soft, gives readily a natural, brilliant, and lasting Polish, without wearing the Articles, and is the only thing fit for Plated Goods. Sold by BRADLEY & BOURDAS, Chemists, Belgrave, London, and by Chemists, Silversmiths, Oilmen, and Ironmongers, in boxes at 1s. and 2s. See that "Bradley's Albatum" is on the box.

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at Market Prices are always to be obtained of the EAST-INDIA COMPANY.—For Town and Country Agencies apply to the Secretary.—Offices, 9, Great St. Helen's Church-yard, City.

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FIREPROOF SAFES give the best protection to books, papers, &c., from fire. All sizes, with various fittings, on sale. Copies of Testimonials, from firms in London, Manchester, Wolverhampton, and other places, whose property has been preserved by Chubb's Safes, with lists of prices, may be had on application—CHUBB & SON, 57, St. Paul's Churchyard.

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S. BURTON has One Large Show Room devoted exclusively to the display of Baths and Toilette Ware. The Stock of each is at once the largest, newest, and most varied ever submitted to the public, and marked with prices proportionate with those that have tended to make his establishment the most distinguished in this country. Portable showers, 7s. 6d.; pillar showers, £3 to £5; nursery, 15s. to 32s.; sponging, 14s. to 32s.; hip, 14s. to 31s. 6d. A large assortment of Gas Furnace, Hot and Cold Plunge, Vapour and Camp Shower Baths.—Toilette Ware in great variety, from 15s. 6d. to 45s. the set of three.

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in the KINGDOM is WILLIAM S. BURTON'S.—He has FOUR LARGE ROOMS devoted to the exclusive show of Iron and Brass Bedsteads and Children's Cots, with appropriate Bedding and Bed-hangings. Portable Folding Bedsteads, from 11s.; Patent Iron Bedsteads, fitted with dovetail joints and patent sacking, from 14s. 6d.; and Cots, from 15s. 6d. each; handsome Ornamental Iron and Brass Bedsteads, in great variety, from £2. 13s. 6d. to £20.

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FURNISHING IRONMONGERY CATALOGUE may be had gratis, and free by post. It contains upwards of 500 Illustrations of his limited Stock of Sterling Silver and Electro-Plate, Nickel Silver and Britannia Metal Goods, Dish Covers, Hot Water Dishes, Stoves, Fenders, Marble Chimney-pieces, Kitchen Ranges, Lamps, Gaseliers, Tea Trays, Urns, and Kettles, Clocks, Table Cutlery, Baths, Toilet Ware, Turnery, Iron and Brass Bedsteads, Bedding, Bedroom Cabinet Furniture, &c., with Lists of Prices and Plans of the Twenty large Show Rooms, at 30, Oxford-street, W.; 1, 1A, 2, 3, and 4, Newman-street; 4, 5, and 6, Perry's-place; and 1, Newman-mews, London.

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A tablespoonful of either of SAINSBURY'S FRUIT ESSENCES, mixed with an ordinary tumblerful of spring water, will form a delicious beverage; they are also peculiarly adapted for flavouring carbonated soda and potass waters, and in every instance where there is a gazogene in use they will be found most desirable. Raspberry, orange, black currant, cherry, and apple fruit essences, at 1s., 1s. 10d., and 3s. 6d. per imperial quarter-pint, half-pint, and pint; lemonade and ginger lemonade, at 10d., 1s. 4d., and 2s. 6d. per quarter-pint, half-pint, and pint; foreign pineapple and mulberry, at 1s. 6d., 2s. 6d., and 5s. per quarter-pint, half-pint, and pint. Manufactory, No. 176 and 177, Strand, third door west of Norfolk-street.

## BASS &amp; CO'S PALE ALE, in Bottle, may

be had in fine condition, at the following Prices for Cash:—

Reputed Measures. Imperial Measure.

Quarts, 6s. 6d.; Pints, 4s. Pints, 5s. per dozen.

Guinness' Extra Stout at the same Prices.

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Best Fancy Trowsers, One Guinea; Black Dress Suit, Three Pounds Fifteen;  
Walking or Sea-side Suit, Three Guineas.

W. COOPER & CO.,  
"TAILORS' ASSOCIATION,"

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(Patterns Free by Post.)

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As Described in the Supplement to "The London Review," May 4th, 1861,

IS MANUFACTURED BY

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By Appointment to the Royal Institution of Great Britain,

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MR. CLAUDET, Photographer to the Queen, cautions the public that some shops are selling spurious imitations of his Carte de Visite Vignette Portrait of H.R.H. the late Duchess of Kent. Although the imperfection of them is manifest, these counterfeit productions are capable of deceiving persons who do not examine attentively the photograph. To prevent this deception Mr. Claudet begs leave to observe that all the Cartes de Visite which come from his establishment are stamped with his name on the back.

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THREE DOORS FROM VIGO STREET, IN THE QUADRANT.

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TWENTY-FOUR FOR ONE GUINEA.

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Is now (since its extensive alterations) the LARGEST IN LONDON. Families will effect a great saving by forwarding their orders to THIS ESTABLISHMENT, where the BEST MOURNING may be purchased at the most reasonable prices, and the wear of the article is guaranteed.

DRESSES, MANTLES, BONNETS, and MOURNING COSTUME of every description, is kept ready-made, and can be forwarded, in town or country, immediately on receipt of order.

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TO TOURISTS AND TRAVELLERS.—PASSPORTS AND VISES PROCURED, without personal attendance, expense, and trouble saved, by applying to C. GOODMAN, Agent (Successor to LEIGH & Co.), 407, Strand, London, W.C., three doors east of the Adelphi Theatre.—N.B. Circular of Instructions Post Free.

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HEDGES & BUTLER have imported a large quantity of this valuable Wine, respecting which it is the general opinion that it will equal the celebrated comet year of 1811. It is increasing in value, and the time must soon arrive when Port of this distinguished vintage will be at double its present price. Messrs. Hedges & Butler are now offering it at 36s., 42s., and 48s. per dozen.

Pure sound Claret, with considerable flavour,  
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Superior Claret ..... 36s. 42s. 48s. 60s. 72s. "

Good Dinner Sherry ..... 24s. 30s. "

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Port, from first-class Shippers, 30s. 42s. 48s. 60s. "

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Fine old Sack, rare White Port, Imperial Tokay, Malmsey, Frontignac, Constantia, Vermuth, and other rare Wines.

Fine Old Pale Cognac Brandy, 60s. and 72s. per dozen.

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has been, during twenty-five years, emphatically sanctioned by the medical profession, and universally accepted by the public, as the best remedy for acidity of the stomach, heartburn, headache, gout, and indigestion, and as a mild aperient for delicate constitutions, more especially for ladies and children. Combined with the Acidulated Lemon Syrup, it forms an agreeable Effervescent Draught, in which its aperient qualities are much increased. During hot seasons, and in hot climates, the regular use of this simple and elegant remedy has been found highly beneficial.—Manufactured (with the utmost attention to strength and purity) by DINNEFORD & CO., 172, New Bond-street, London; and sold by all respectable Chemists throughout the empire.

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## NORTON'S CAMOMILE PILLS

are confidently recommended as a simple but certain remedy for Indigestion, which is the cause of nearly all the diseases to which we are subject; being a medicine so uniformly grateful and beneficial that it is with justice called the "Natural Strengtheners of the Human Stomach."

Norton's PILLS act as a powerful tonic and general aperient; are mild in their operation; safe under any circumstances; and thousands of persons can now bear testimony to the benefits to be derived from their use.

Sold in Bottles at 1s. 1½d., 2s. 9d., and 11s. each, in every town in the kingdom.

Caution.—Be sure to ask for "NORTON'S PILLS," and do not be persuaded to purchase the various imitations.

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**LIGHT-BROWN COD LIVER OIL,**  
prescribed by the most eminent Medical Men throughout the world as the safest, speediest, and most effectual remedy for

CONSUMPTION, CHRONIC BRONCHITIS, ASTHMA, COUGHS, RHEUMATISM, GOUT, GENERAL DEBILITY, DISEASES OF THE SKIN, RICKETS, INFANTILE WASTING, AND ALL SCROFULOUS AFFECTIONS.

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Sir HENRY MARSH, BART., M.D., Physician in Ordinary to the Queen in Ireland.—"I consider Dr. de Jongh's Cod Liver Oil to be a very pure Oil, not likely to create disgust, and a therapeutic agent of great value."

Dr. GRANVILLE, F.R.S.—"Dr. Granville has found that Dr. de Jongh's Light-Brown Cod Liver Oil produces the desired effect in a shorter time than other kinds, and that it does not cause the nausea and indigestion too often consequent on the administration of the Pale Oil."

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Dr. DE JONGH'S LIGHT-BROWN COD LIVER OIL is sold only in IMPERIAL Half-pints, 2s. 6d.; Pints, 4s. 9d.; Quarts, 9s.; and labelled with his stamp and signature, WITHOUT WHICH NONE CAN POSSIBLY BE GENUINE, by respectable Chemists.

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ANSAR, HARFORD, &amp; Co., 77, Strand, London, W.C.

CAUTION.—Beware of Proposed Substitutions.

**WHITE AND SOUND TEETH** are indispensable to personal attraction, and to health and longevity by the proper mastication of food,

ROWLAND'S ODONTO,

or Pearl Dentifrice,

preserves and imparts a pearl-like whiteness to the Teeth, eradicates Tartar and Spots of Incipient Decay, strengthens the Gums, and gives a delicate fragrance to the breath. Price 2s. 9d. per box. Sold at 20, Hatton-garden, and by Chemists and Perfumers.

Ask for "ROWLAND'S ODONTO."

## TO PROFESSIONAL GENTLEMEN.

**PEAR'S TRANSPARENT SHAVING-STICK** produces, with hot or cold water, an instantaneous, unctuous, and consistent lather, which softens the beard, and thereby renders the process of shaving more rapid, easy, and cleanly, than the old mode of using the brush and the dish.

PEAR'S TRANSPARENT SOAP surpasses all others for toilet purposes, imparting a most agreeable odour and softness to the skin. Prices, in tablets, 1s. each and upwards; made also in round cakes suitable for the shaving-dish, from 1s. each. To avoid counterfeits, observe that the genuine Transparent Soap can be procured at the Inventor's Manufactory, 91, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury; or of J. & E. ATKINSON, 24, Old Bond-street; SMYTH & NEPHEW, 117, New Bond-street; W. PRITCHARD, 65, Charing-cross; W. WINTER, 205, Oxford-street; J. SANGER, 150, Oxford-street, London; and of all respectable Perfumers in town and country; or, upon sixteen postage stamps being sent to Messrs. A. & F. PEAR'S, one Shaving Stick will be forwarded free for trial.

**COUGHS, COLDS, CONSUMPTION, ASTHMA, BRONCHITIS, NEURALGIA, RHEUMATISM, &c.** are instantly relieved by Dr. J. COLLIS BROWNE'S CHLORODYNE. In consequence of the extraordinary efficacy of this remedy, several unprincipled parties have been induced to vend imitations. Never purchase Chlorodyne except in sealed bottles having the Government stamp, with the words "Dr. J. Collis Browne's Chlorodyne" engraved thereon. A whole sheet of medical testimonials accompany each bottle.

Sole Manufacturer, J. T. DAVENPORT, 33, Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury, London.

Price in bottles, 2s. 9d. and 4s. 6d., carriage free.

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## EASTON'S PATENT BOILER FLUID

effectually removes and prevents Incrustation in Steam Boilers, without injury to the metal, with great saving in fuel, and with less liability to accident from explosion. It is used by H.M. Steam Storeships, Woolwich Arsenal, Honourable Corporation of Trinity House, Tower of London, by the principal Steam Packet Companies of London, Liverpool, Southampton, Hull, &c., and by Engineers and Manufacturers throughout the country. Testimonials from eminent Engineers, Boiler Makers, and Manufacturers, with full particulars, will be forwarded on application to P. S. EASTON, and G. SPRINGFIELD, Sole Manufacturers and Patentees, 37, 39, and 39, Wapping-wall, London, E.

"Mr. Easton has rendered steam navigation a decided service. If his fluid only effects a part of what is said of it in his testimonials, then it is worth a trial by every steamship owner in the world."—*Mitchell's Steam Shipping Journal* of 23rd Dec. 1860.

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60, QUEEN-STREET, LONDON, 23rd August, 1860.

Messrs. R. WOTHERSPOON &amp; Co., 46, Dunlop-street, Glasgow.

DEAR SIR,—I have, as requested, to-day visited the Royal Laundry, with reference to the advertisement of the Nottingham firm, who state that their Starch has been used for many years in the Royal Laundry, and have been assured by Mr. Thompson, the Superintendent, that none but yourselves have any right to state that they supply Starch to Her Majesty's Laundry, as no other Starch is there used, nor has been used for some years, but the Glenfield Patent Starch.

I have been further assured that your Starch continues to give complete satisfaction, and that though trial has been made of samples of various Starches, none of these have been found nearly equal in quality to the Glenfield.

I am, dear Sirs, your obedient Servant, WM. BLACK.



## UNITED KINGDOM LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 5, Waterloo-place, Pall-mall, S.W.

The Hon. FRANCIS SCOTT, Chairman.

CHARLES BREWICK CURTIS, Esq., Deputy-Chairman.

Fourth Division of Profits.

**SPECIAL NOTICE.**—Parties desirous of participating in the fourth division of profits to be declared on policies effected prior to the 31st of December, 1861, should make immediate application. There have already been three divisions of profits, and the bonuses divided have averaged nearly 2 per cent. per annum on the sums assured, or from 30 to 100 per cent. on the premiums paid, without the risk of co-partnership. To show more clearly what these bonuses amount to, the three following cases are given as examples:—

Sum Insured.	Bonuses added.	Amount payable up to Dec. 1854.
£5,000	£1,987 10	£6,987 10
1,000	397 10	1,397 10
100	39 15	139 15

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## SUPPLEMENT TO THE LONDON REVIEW.

No. 53.]

SATURDAY, JULY 6, 1861.

[Vol. III.]

## Reviews of Books.

WILLIAM PITT.\*

DURING the short period that had elapsed since this book was first announced, it had been eagerly looked for, as the feeling was universal that a better Life of Pitt was required than had been furnished by Gifford, and a more complete one than that which was interrupted by the death of Bishop Tomline; and as Lord Stanhope's position gave him peculiar facilities for obtaining extensive and minute information on almost all the most important passages in the history of the deceased statesman. But, we are very sorry to say it, the present work will add but little to his lordship's fame as a writer, and is far from being such a monument as the memory of the greatest of British ministers deserved.

Lord Stanhope has been for many years before the public as an author. His History of England, in particular, has been widely read; if he is not possessed of the power of language and description enjoyed by Macaulay, Prescott, Motley, or Froude; yet his merits of honest diligence, of careful research, of considerable political shrewdness, of copious historical knowledge, and of general candour and impartiality, have been very commonly acknowledged; and if he has no claim to be ranked in the first class, a place on a level with the best of our second-rate writers has been very generally and willingly conceded to him. But in the present work we sadly miss even the diligent pains which have been wont to set his other good qualities in the best light. The volumes before us bear all the marks of haste and slovenliness; they are full of unmeaning platitudes, of slipshod and often ungrammatical English. We will give two or three examples to justify this charge. We are told,—

"Lord Chatham had bid him [Mr. Pitt] take up any book in some foreign language with which he was well acquainted, in Latin or Greek especially; Lord Chatham then enjoined him to read out of this work a passage in English, stopping where he was not sure of the word to be used in English, until the right word came to his mind, and then proceed. Mr. Pitt stated that he had assiduously followed this practice."

After this elegant specimen of English composition, we are treated to the following profound reflection:—

"We may conclude that at first he had often to stop for a while before he could recollect the proper word, but that he found the difficulties gradually disappear, until what was a toil to him at first, became at last an easy and familiar task."—I. 9.

We presume his lordship means "familiar and easy;" but what is this more than might be said of every scholar and task under the sun? Or what is there that a beginner does not find difficult at first? or to whom, however stupid he may be, does not a task, however difficult at first, become easier by practice? "We may conclude" that Lord Stanhope now finds writing easier than he found it twenty years ago; and we may hope that practice may make it easier for us to read with patience such writing as that which we have quoted. With similar elegance of expression we are told:—

"This letter bears an indorsement in Lord Grenville's hand 'to be circulated,'—that is among the Cabinet Ministers. Thus it must have come before Mr. Pitt. But I know not whether any or what answer it received."—II. 181.

"He was teased like a tennis ball from side to side [we are sorry Lord Stanhope's experience of tennis is derived from players who *teas* their balls], almost quite determined to join the Ministry when he met Lord Malmesbury; almost quite determined not whenever he met Mr. Fox."—II. 183.

"Admiral Greig, a Scotchman in the Russians' service, and commanding their Baltic fleet, proved an overmatch to the Swedish; the principal officers and nobles of Gustavus were disaffected to him from the violent *subversion* of their privileges which he had made in former years."—II. 103."

With the expedition to Walcheren we are told "he was not, except in kindred, connected."—II. 191. We fear that a future generation which forgets that Pitt's brother, Lord Chatham, was the General in this expedition, which was far worse conducted than imagined, will have some difficulty in divining the meaning of this sentence, though we trust it will detect the irony, skilfully as it is concealed from careless readers, which relates that "in the provinces the executions (in the Reign of Terror) were marked by agreeable varieties, denoting a playful wit."—II. 197.

Bad as these faults, which we have selected out of hundreds of similar inelegancies, are, they are not the worst defects in the volume before us. The introduction of letters into a biography has always seemed to us a proof either of a want of pains or of a want of skill in the biographer; they inevitably spoil the connection of the story, which he ought to tell in his own language, and their proper place is in the appendix (not one is to be found in that model of all biographies, "Southey's Life of Nelson"). And this opinion is evidently entertained in some degree by Lord Stanhope himself, since he has placed in an appendix the letters from the King to Pitt, which are of considerable interest as throwing light on that monarch's character and manner of conducting the affairs of the State. But though the habitual practice of inferior writers may have led readers into a habit of indulgence on this point, there can be no question at all that letters introduced into a memoir ought to be carefully selected, ought to be such alone as exemplify the character, position, or abilities of the writer. There was an unusual scope for such a selection in the letters of Pitt, whose correspondence was full of liveliness and wit; but the generality of the letters printed by Lord Stanhope are of the most commonplace kind, apparently inserted only to expand the book into four volumes, by telling in a page what a skilful writer would have told in a line.

That the whole book has been put together with the most precipitate haste is plain from the fact that Mr. Murray, who is fond enough of giving notice of books months and even years before they are published, never announced this memoir as in preparation till last autumn; from which it may fairly be inferred that it was scarcely commenced at that time. And the only way by which we can account for a book, of which the subject is so important, being so hastily and carelessly compiled, is by supposing that as the "Life of Fox," by our Foreign Secretary, is very nearly the worst biography existing in any language, Lord Stanhope thought it fit that the statesmen who were rivals in their lives, should after their deaths be not wholly divided, and so tried to write himself down to the level of Lord John Russell. A long familiarity with the art of composition, an intimate acquaintance with the history of the last century, and a general soundness of political ideas, has prevented him from doing so entirely; so that with all their negative deficiencies, and with all their positive faults, Lord Stanhope's volumes are not without a certain value to the historical student. Still it is provoking that with such a subject before him he should have driven us to follow the criticism of George Primrose, and confine ourselves to saying that the book

would have been better written if the writer had taken more pains, and to praising the style of Robert Southey.

And yet a life of such a man deserved more care; for Pitt is not yet obsolete, neither as a subject, nor as an example. Of this a proof, almost unexampled in its character, was last year afforded by the debates on the Treaty with France, when the chief argument put forward in its defence by Mr. Gladstone, was that he was strictly following the precedent afforded by Mr. Pitt in his commercial treaty in 1786; and when the Opposition exerted themselves with equal zeal to show that the measure under discussion resembled the former treaty neither in its details nor in its principles. So that it was, by direct implication, admitted by both parties that an adherence to Pitt's commercial and financial principles was an invincible recommendation of any measure; that a departure from them was a proof of unsoundness which, if established, deserved, and must ensure, condemnation and defeat.

It is an old observation that, great as Pitt's talents were, the most remarkable thing about them or him was his unprecedented precocity. But the direction which they took from his earliest boyhood is, perhaps, equally singular. He was born a debater. Whether he read Milton or Thucydides, his attention was equally directed to balancing the arguments of the different speakers; he weighed the peaceful logic of Belial against the fiery declamation of Moloch, as carefully as he contrasted the wise humanity of Deodotus with the popularity-seeking sophistries of Cleon. If he was present at a discussion in Parliament, his mind was never diverted by the eloquence of the orators on either side from the consideration how they might be answered; if he wrote a play himself (as in fact he did), the characters and incidents were drawn from the scenes and topics of the political arena. This habit was undoubtedly owing in a great degree to the peculiar instruction given to him in his childhood, for his delicate health prevented him from being sent to Eton, and he was educated at home till the improvement in his constitution allowed him to proceed to Cambridge, so that he was brought up, in an unusual degree, under the eye of his father; and Lord Chatham, with an instinct sharpened by paternal affection, early perceived his great capacity, and devoted his chief care to direct it in the path in which he had won his own laurels. But to some extent it must also be attributed to the gift of Nature, who so often, in her dealings with minds of the highest power, seems to stamp them from the first with the character which they are destined to display through life, whether for good or for evil.

Many stories, of greater or less authenticity, are recorded of the early proofs of great ability which he gave, and of the expectations conceived of him by even the most casual acquaintances; and at the University he established a high character for proficiency in his academical studies, and for an unvarying correctness of demeanour. But the extent of his capacity was probably dreamt of by no one, when, in February, 1781, he made his first speech as a Member of Parliament in support of Burke's Bill for Economical Reform. At the recent election he had been returned for Appleby by the influence of Sir James Lowther, after having failed to obtain a seat for the University of Cambridge. In his "History of England," Lord Stanhope sneered at Lord Rockingham for not aiding him in that contest with his interest; but he forbears to repeat the sneer in this biography, having probably reflected that Pitt's expectation of such support was not very reasonable, since Lord Rockingham had no cause to feel any obligation to the memory of Lord Chatham, could have no knowledge of the young aspirant's own abilities, and might fairly look upon an untried youth who had but just attained his majority (he had been born in May, 1759) as not yet entitled to represent one of the two most respectable and important constituencies in the kingdom. But his first speech, followed as it was at short intervals by others of similar power, placed him in the very first class of parliamentary orators. Fox loaded him with sincere congratulations; Burke, when some one, referring to Lord Chatham, pronounced the son a chip of the old block, declared with enthusiasm that he was the old block itself; and a few weeks later Walpole (whose partialities rather lent the other way), after relating how he had replied to Lord North, and "torn him limb from limb," expressed a hope that Fox would be roused to steadier exertion by so formidable a rival, with a character so unspotted.

He had been called to the Bar before he entered Parliament, and had become a member of the Western Circuit, which, as yet, he did not wholly desert. Lord Brougham, whose sketch of him as a statesman is sadly deficient in fairness, and bears throughout marks of being dictated by the Foxite partialities of Brooks's, laments that he ever quitted it; paying him a compliment in spite of himself, when, after having apparently exalted the Bar above the Senate (a preference which could surely exist nowhere but in the breast of a lawyer), he pronounces a positive opinion that "Pitt must have become easily, naturally, and in no long time, one of the greatest advocates ever produced in any age; great, too, in all the branches of his art." Luckily, however, for the country, he followed the bent of his own inclinations, and soon wholly forsook the profession of the law. On one occasion, indeed, he for a moment thought of resuming his wig and gown, when political changes, which seemed to be imminent, threatened to leave him no other resource; but the idea passed away with the circumstances that had given rise to it, and after the year 1781 he never, in any way, practised as a barrister.

The next was a momentous year. At the end of 1781, the news of the surrender of Lord Cornwallis and his army arrived, and it became manifest, even to the King, that the war in America could no longer be protracted. Lord North's ministry fell; and Lord Rockingham, by whom he was succeeded, offered Pitt the office of Vice-Treasurer of Ireland, which had formerly been held by Lord Chatham. Though a place of great emolument, it was refused. The young orator, with a boldness, which nothing but his subsequent fortune saves from being called presumption, had announced, in the debates at the opening of the Session, that "he would accept no subordinate situation;" and he adhered to his resolution, preserving his position as an independent member of Parliament, but giving a general support to the Ministry. It was a remarkable compliment to one so young to offer him a post which had not been reached by his father without many years of Parliamentary exertions; but it was a far more striking proof of the weight which he had already acquired, that the advocates of Parliamentary Reform, which was treated as an open question by the Ministry, entrusted to him the task of bringing it forward in the House of Commons. The most remarkable thing in his speech was, that he affirmed that his father had also looked on an improvement in the representative system then existing as the only means of preventing a general corruption of the people. The subject was not then of sufficient interest to attract a very full House; but out of 302 members present, his arguments and those of Fox, who supported him with great earnestness, prevailed with 141; and nearly half a century passed before the advocates of the

\* Life of the Right Honourable William Pitt. By Earl Stanhope. London: John Murray & Co. 1861.





measure were again found in so nearly equal a proportion to its opponents. It was probably as a tribute to his exertions on this subject that (as we learn from Walpole, in a letter dated the week after the debate), the citizens of Westminster fixed upon him to be their representative at the next election.

Member for Westminster, however, he neither became nor wished to become; but a more honourable reward was in store for him. Lord Rockingham, whose health was always delicate, after an illness of a few days, died on the 1st of July, and his death dissolved his Ministry, when it had existed little more than three months. Lord Stanhope's idolatry of the first Lord Chatham prevents his doing justice to that Minister, who, in each of two very brief periods of office, rendered most momentous services to his country. In his first Ministry he had pacified and conciliated our American colonies; in his second, after the rash folly of his successors had for ever broken the union between them and the mother country, he paved the way for an amicable conclusion of the quarrel. He redressed the grievances of Ireland; and by Burke's measure of economical reform, he effected an enormous saving to the country, which subsequently proved of no small importance to Pitt in his endeavours to put the whole finance of the country on a better footing. Yet because Lord Chatham, in 1766, dishonoured himself by the treachery with which he behaved to this most honest Minister, Lord Stanhope now ventures to stigmatize Lord Rockingham as "on every point timid, feeble, indecisive." Though, besides the important achievements which we have enumerated, unparalleled, if the rapidity with which they were accomplished be considered, the greatness of his merits as head of a Government is sufficiently proved by the fact that he was able to manage and to preserve in co-operation men so wholly devoted to selfish ambition as Lord Shelburne and Fox.

His death at once broke the bonds which had held them. The King offered his office to Lord Shelburne, who had a fair claim to it from the post of Secretary of State which he already filled, and from his abilities, which were considerable, had they not been tarnished by an invincible love of duplicity and intrigue, which had procured him the nickname of Malagrida, a well-known Portuguese Jesuit, and which made people quote, as a good jest, the slander of Goldsmith when he said to him, "I don't know why they should call you Malagrida, for Malagrida was a very honest man." Fox, however, had designed to secure the chief power for himself, and, with this view, insisted upon the Treasury being offered to the Duke of Portland, a man without a single qualification for that or for any other office, and yet one whom immense wealth, considerable borough interest, and the strange necessities of party, in subsequent years made Secretary of State at a great crisis, and twice raised to be Prime Minister. For the present, however, the King refused the demand which Fox pressed upon him; and that Minister and his followers at once resigned their offices. Their resignation left a great gap in the Administration, which Lord Shelburne had to fill up as he best could. Thomas Townsend and Lord Grantham succeeded him and Fox as Secretaries of State, and Pitt, at the age of twenty-three, took Lord John Cavendish's place as Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The lead of the House of Commons belonged to Townsend; but the new Ministry had scarcely been installed before the eloquence and energy of the young Chancellor of the Exchequer transferred it to him. He now, Walpole tells us, returned all his briefs to his clients, finally abjured the law, and put himself forward as the chief of his party in the Lower House by the vigour with which he assailed Fox for his late resignation, which he declared "was founded on a dislike to men, and not to measures," and bore evident marks of personal feeling. He had soon an opportunity of showing that he himself was influenced by no such consideration. The Ministry was weak, and it was necessary for it to try and gain allies from some party or other. The Opposition at this moment consisted of two parties, who had been at all times irreconcilably at variance: the Tories, headed by Lord North, the Minister of the American war; and that section of the Whigs which followed Burke and Fox, the unwearied denouncers of Lord North's policy. To that policy Lord Shelburne had been equally opposed; but, being as much under the influence of personal feelings as Fox, and perhaps preferring the man of the least firmness and resolution for a colleague, he inclined to court a junction with Lord North. This step, however, which would have been fatal to the credit of the Ministry, was resolutely resisted by Pitt, who gave his voice unhesitatingly for inviting Fox to return to office, though it was plain that, if Fox consented, the lead in the House of Commons must at once fall into his hands. Pitt even volunteered to become the agent in the negotiation, to which, however, Fox refused to listen, except on the preliminary condition that Lord Shelburne should resign the Treasury. Pitt at once drew himself up; he had not, he said, met Fox "to betray Lord Shelburne"—and with these words he retired from the interview. It is a remarkable instance of the carelessness with which Lord Stanhope has applied himself to his task, that, in concluding his relation of this occurrence, he quotes with manifest agreement Bishop Tomline's statement, that "from this period may be dated that political hostility which continued through the remainder of their" (Pitt's and Fox's) "lives" (vol. i., p. 93); though only thirteen pages earlier he has himself pointed out the "keenness" of the "altercation" which had taken place between them in the debates on the first meeting of Parliament after the formation of Lord Shelburne's Ministry.

Fox, however, was eager for office; and, though he would not join Lord Shelburne, with whom he had not one ground of public disagreement, he was willing to coalesce with Lord North, with whom he had not a single political sentiment in common. The coalition, not more scandalous than ill-advised, was quickly adjusted, and in less than a week after Pitt's interview with Fox, it was publicly announced in the House of Commons, by the union of the two parties to condemn the peace just concluded with the United States and their allies, on terms to which, it cannot be doubted, Fox himself would gladly have agreed, if he had been in office. The Ministry were left in a minority of 16. Four days afterwards they sustained a second defeat on the same subject, and Lord Shelburne resigned his office.

He had lost no credit by the recent transactions, and Pitt had gained a great accession of reputation. His speech on the second debate was admitted, even by his opponents, to have been a most splendid display of eloquence; and the retiring Prime Minister, looking on Fox's opposition as chiefly directed against himself personally, advised his Sovereign to appoint Pitt to be his successor. George III. was not only indignant at Fox's public conduct, but had conceived a very bad opinion, which was not undeserved, of his private character; imputing the irregularities for which the Prince of Wales had unhappily already become notorious, to his evil example and encouragement. He was, therefore, resolved not to replace him in office, if he could avoid it, and gladly took Lord Shelburne's advice. It was a strange thing to see the government of so vast an empire offered to a young man of three-and-twenty. It was stranger still to see that young man of three-and-twenty refuse it. The post of Prime Minister is the highest prize that can be offered to the ambition of a subject, and Pitt was ambitious: he was, moreover, fully conscious of the possession of talents sufficient to justify his ambition. Yet, even at this early age, his ambition and his self-confidence were both under the regulation of his cool, deliberate, and sound judgment. He took time to consider the offer which had been made to him. He

weighed the state of parties, the numbers and abilities of those on whom he could rely for support, and of those who would be arrayed against him, and he declined the king's offer. A few days afterwards it was repeated under more favourable circumstances; the Duke of Portland, to whom, on Pitt's refusal, the king had applied, having announced the failure of his attempt to form a ministry. Renewed reflection produced no change in his resolution, and, even though the king almost reproached him as having no "regard for the Constitution as established by law," if he hesitated "to stand forth against the most daring and unprincipled faction that the annals of this kingdom ever produced" (App. to Vol. I. iii.), he adhered to his refusal. It left the king no alternative; and in the first week of April Fox for ever ruined his character as an honest statesman by the use which he made of his victory over his Sovereign. He and Lord North became Secretaries of State, the Duke of Portland being the First Lord of the Treasury.

The new Ministry was from its commencement disliked and despised throughout the kingdom, and no event could possibly have occurred so greatly calculated to raise Pitt's character and influence. Fox's professions of patriotism were universally seen through. He was clearly seen to have sacrificed his principles for the sake of office, in a way of which his father had scarcely set him the example; and he could not thus degrade himself without making Pitt seem brighter by the contrast. In the great speech which Pitt had made when his crowning defeat in the House of Commons was apparent, he had quoted but half a stanza of Horace; but the public supplied the hiatus and contrasted his virtue and honourable poverty with the shameless covetousness of the gains of office which his rival displayed. He took but little part in the debates of the remainder of the session; but the few occasions on which he put himself forward raised his renown for eloquence still higher than before. In May Walpole reports to one of his correspondents that "his language is thought equal to his father's, his reasoning much superior." He renewed his motion for a reform in Parliament; but, being encountered by the vigorous opposition of one half of the Ministry, he was defeated by a large majority. He brought in a Bill for the Reform of Abuses in Public Offices, supporting it with convincing arguments, and with striking instances of gross misappropriation of the public revenue.\* It did pass through the Commons, but in the House of Lords the power of the entire Ministry was exerted to throw it out, and succeeded. But as yet he made no formal attack upon the Administration. During the Parliamentary recess he made a short visit to France in company with Mr. Eliot and Wilberforce, destined to an immortal renown as the great vanquisher of the Slave Trade. At first the three friends met with some whimsical hardships from their omission to provide themselves with any letters of introduction, except one from a London merchant to a correspondent of his house at Rheims, who proved to be a grocer. But, when it became known who they were, they were treated with abundant distinction, were presented at Court, and Pitt himself was honoured with invitations to join the Royal hunting parties. In one respect, very important in French eyes, he was especially well qualified for the society into which he was thus welcomed. He was full of high spirits and endowed with the most lively wit, which attracted the notice and admiration of the most accomplished leaders of fashion at Versailles. Gaming was no longer countenanced at the French Court as it had been, and in that, even in its most modified form, he showed no inclination to indulge; an abstinence which was the result of a victory over himself, since he had for a short time yielded to the attractions of play at the clubs to which he belonged in London, till his perceptions of its increasing fascinations warned him resolutely to renounce it. He was absent from England barely six weeks; but even in that short period he acquired a considerable insight into the state of affairs and the condition of the people in France. He very soon formed the opinion, that though the French had no political freedom, they had more civil liberty than they fancied; a judgment to which, perhaps, we may trace his early agreement with Burke on the Revolution which broke out six years afterwards.

Parliament met again in November, and now the Government afforded a vulnerable point to an assailant, of which Pitt was not slow to avail himself. During Lord Shelburne's ministry, the celebrated wit of fashion, George Selwyn, contrasting Pitt's increasing application with Fox's ostentatious profligacy, had nicknamed them from Hogarth's well-known pictures, the Industrious and Idle Apprentice. But Fox, on attaining the object of his ambition, had thrown off all his idleness, had steadily cast aside the dice-box, and had put forth more energy than he was previously supposed to possess in the discharge of the duties of his office. During the vacation he had been busily employed in endeavouring to render his hold on that office permanent. It had been acknowledged by both sides of the House to be necessary to devise a measure for placing the Administration of the Government of India on a better footing; and Burke, who occupied the same post in the Coalition Ministry which he had filled under Lord Rockingham, had sketched out the draft of a bill which, in spite of the warnings of Lord North, was adopted by the Cabinet. Lord John Russell claims, however, for Fox a share in the preparation of the measure thus decided on; and, if the claim be well-founded, it may perhaps not be very difficult to distinguish the portions of it which had the greatest attractions for him. On the 18th of November he brought it forward in the House of Commons, and it proved to be a most sweeping abolition of all the existing charters of the East-India Company: it proposed to give the entire administration of the Government of India to a board of seven persons, who were to be appointed by the existing Parliament, and who for four years were to be absolutely irremovable; while, as if on purpose to show that the lasting aggrandisement of his own party was one of his principal objects, he allowed it to be generally known that he intended the chief of this board to be Lord Fitzwilliam, a nobleman who had never given the slightest proof of political capacity, and who could have had no qualification whatever, even in Fox's own mind, but that of a thorough-going partisan, and one likely to prove an easy, unscrupulous tool. The moment that he sat down Pitt announced his uncompromising opposition to the bill. His sagacity at once penetrated its character and its objects. In a series of powerful speeches he pointed out the danger in which all chartered rights were placed by so summary an abrogation of all the charters of the Company; he showed convincingly that a bill, which created and invested with such powers, as were now proposed, a board neither elected by the people nor removable by the Crown, violated all the principles of the constitution; while by placing, as it did, the whole of the patronage of India in the hands of the Ministers, whose creatures the commissioners would inevitably be, it was giving them the means of securing the perpetuity of their own power.

In the House of Commons, however, his oratory was unsuccessful. The coalition had so far succeeded that the Ministry had a decided majority, and in the short space of three weeks the bill passed through all its stages in the lower House, and was sent up to the peers. There also, at first, it seemed likely to

\* The stanza half quoted by Pitt, Feb. 21, was Hor. Od. iii. 29, with the omission of the words in inverted commas,—

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have similar success; but the king had viewed it with distrust from its first introduction, and Lord Thurlow and Lord Temple worked upon his dislike till they prevailed upon him to authorise the statement that he should look on any peer who voted for it "as his enemy."

"If these words were not strong enough, Lord Temple might use whatever words he might deem stronger and more to the purpose."

In consequence of this intimation, many peers who would have supported the bill,—the Prince of Wales among the number,—absented themselves from the division on the question of committing it; others voted against it, and it was lost; and, as the Ministers did not resign, the next day the king dismissed them from their offices. He at once offered the government to Pitt; Pitt without hesitation accepted it; and now began a struggle to which there is no parallel in our Parliamentary annals.

In order clearly to appreciate the difficulty of Pitt's situation, we must remember that the king's conduct in thus procuring, by secret communications to an irresponsible agent, the defeat of a measure brought in by his own Ministers, had been unquestionably a violation of constitutional principle. Nothing can be weaker than the arguments by which Lord Stanhope seeks to evade this doctrine; and, secondly, that for that violation of constitutional principle by his Majesty, Pitt, by accepting office, had made himself responsible. This Lord Stanhope (l. 155) denies; but there is no question whatever of the constitutional law. That the new Minister is responsible for all the proceedings connected with his assumption of office, was admitted to be the principle of the constitution by both parties in the discussions which ensued upon the change of Ministry on the death of Earl Spencer in 1834, and it is plain that he must be so. Nothing can be done without some one being responsible; but the king himself is irresponsible. His Ministers are responsible while Ministers; but who is responsible for the events which lead to a change in the administration? Those who lose office in consequence of what has taken place? The idea is an absurdity. It must, therefore, be the new Government; and, in fact, Pitt himself never denied his responsibility. That it should be pressed upon him with the whole power of the ejected Ministry was a matter of course. Indeed, Fox and his party had commenced their attacks upon the King's conduct even before the seals were taken from them, though their retention of office at the moment compelled them to frame the resolution which they carried through the House of Commons in such vague terms, that Pitt was able to contend against it with great power of argument. The moment that they had taken their seats on the Opposition benches they had no such considerations to restrain them; and they were the more excited to vigorous effort by the certainty which they felt that the king was wholly in their power, and that they could easily force him to re-admit them. This was the feeling of their whole party. It was the 19th of December when Pitt's new writ was moved for, and Mrs. Crewe, a celebrated wit of the new opposition party, foretold that his would be but "a mince-pie administration," lasting no longer than the Christmas holidays. The moment those holidays were ended the battle began. If the event could be prognosticated from the apparent odds, Mrs. Crewe's boast seemed likely to be justified.

Pitt, though meeting with one or two refusals, had not been altogether unfortunate in the composition of his Cabinet. He had been especially lucky in Lord Temple's retiring from it in pique, at being refused promotion in the peerage; since he had no one quality, either of capacity, amiability, or popularity to render him a desirable colleague; but of his whole cabinet he had no member but himself in the House of Commons. Mr. Dundas, the ablest speaker on his side, was but in a subordinate situation, as Treasurer of the Navy; so that the young Minister, not yet twenty-five years of age, had singlehanded, as it might be said, to encounter the whole current of an opposition led by Fox, Burke, Sheridan, and Lord North. For nearly three months did he continue this apparently unequal combat, with a courage that never quailed, with a temper that nothing could ruffle, with a readiness of reply and resource that was never at fault, with an eloquence never wanting when there was an opportunity for its display, and with a combination of virtues and abilities of every kind that amazed even foreign countries,\* which turned an eager attention on this unparalleled contest, and that in his own country gradually won the esteem and support of numbers of those who, at first, had been on the side of his antagonists. He was greatly aided by the excessive intemperance and indiscretion of Fox. Even Lord John Russell allows that the very first movement made by Fox, after the India Bill was thrown out by the Lords, was one which placed him, while still a Minister of the Crown, in the position of one who was openly censuring his sovereign's conduct. (Russell's "Fox," ii. 46.)

His next step, if such a thing be possible, was a still greater blunder. He and his partisans actually denied the king the power of dissolving the Parliament at his pleasure; and, though they endeavoured to qualify this monstrous doctrine by distinguishing between an ordinary and what they termed "a penal dissolution," adopted in consequence of votes given by the House of Commons, the nation in general refused to see the distinction, and looked upon the Opposition as a body attempting to invade the most valuable and the best established of all the royal prerogatives. Not contented with this, he proceeded next to deny the sovereign's power to create peers. It would occupy too much of our space to enter into all the details of the contest. The Opposition threw out Pitt's India Bill; that was a matter of course. They carried a resolution, affirming that the continuance of the existing Ministry in office was "contrary to constitutional principles, and injurious to the interests of his Majesty and his people." Yet, when challenged by Dundas, they did not venture, to add to their resolutions an assertion that "their incapacity and insufficiency were the grounds on which the House of Commons denied them its confidence." (Russell's "Fox," ii. 63.) A body of independent members of that house, alarmed at the prospect presented by the existing state of public affairs, carried resolutions expressive of a wish for a reconciliation between and an union of the contending parties; but again Pitt's address placed his antagonists manifestly in the wrong. He expressed his willingness to treat with the opposite party; but when it was found that they required, as a preliminary to all negotiation, that he should resign his offices, he drew back, and met the demand by a peremptory refusal, declaring that, "while defending, as he believed himself to be doing, the fortress of the constitution, he would never consent to march out of it with a halter about his neck, to change his

armour and meanly beg to be readmitted as a volunteer in the army of the enemy." Baffled in this attempt to outwit him, his antagonists tried a fresh expedient. On one occasion the populace were dragging his carriage up St. James's-street, and when it arrived opposite Brookes's clubhouse—then, as now, the stronghold of the Whig party—the carriage was attacked by a strong body of rioters, among whom (there is no reasonable doubt of the fact) were many members of the club, who with bludgeons and chairpoles dashed in the panels of the carriage, and, forcing open the doors, aimed many a savage blow at the Minister himself. This attack, rendered ridiculous by its failure, did them no good, —their majorities diminished daily. Once they did stop a vote of supply for three days; but they did not venture to refuse them altogether.\* Their majorities dwindled more and more. At last, on the 8th of March, Pitt mustered 190 against 191 who supported a motion long prepared against him by Fox, and so significant a hint to try no more divisions could not but be taken. The victory of the Minister was acknowledged, the Mutiny Bill and the supplies were allowed to pass unopposed, and March 29th the Parliament was dissolved.

The marvellous display of ministerial capacity and constitutional knowledge which had been made by Pitt during this eventful struggle would alone have sufficed to ensure him a predominance in the new House of Commons; but a signal act of disinterested virtue, which he had just had the opportunity of performing, probably aided him quite as much. Sir Edward Walpole, to whom his father, the great Minister of George II., had given a sinecure called the Clerkship of the Pells, the value of which was £3,000 a year, died at the beginning of this year. The preferment was in Pitt's gift, and Lord Thurlow strongly advised him to take it for himself. His private fortune was most scanty; his retention of office was manifestly most precarious; and, if his administration should be defeated, as, at the beginning of the session, it seemed almost certain that it would be, he had no prospect before him but that of being compelled to return to the Bar. But from anything that resembled a job Pitt was resolved to keep himself free, and, instead of securing his own pecuniary independence, he conferred the post on an old and distinguished Member of Parliament, Colonel Barré, whose poverty Lord Rockingham, with more humanity than propriety, had relieved with a pension of about the same value; though, at the very moment of this pension being granted, Parliament was discussing Burke's bill for economical reform, which prohibited grants of such an amount being made in future. Pitt's disinterestedness was rewarded by the lasting belief in his spotless purity in money matters, which it established, and which even the bitterness of party rancour never in subsequent years questioned for a moment.

The result of the general election proved how well he had judged in delaying it till the public had had time to understand the real character of the question at issue between himself and his opponents. His majority was far greater than any which had supported any Ministry since the commencement of the reign. He himself was returned at the head of the poll as member for the University of Cambridge; and from this time forward a history of his ministerial career becomes a history of England. It is unfortunate that the first use which he made of his triumph was not only an indefensible one, but one which bore the unmistakable character of being dictated by personal animosity. Fox, after a protracted contest, had been returned for Westminster; but when the defeated candidate, Sir Cecil May, demanded a scrutiny into the votes, the High Bailiff having granted it, refused to make a return of the election till the scrutiny should be decided. Fox, who had also been elected member for Kirkwall, brought the matter before the House of Commons, and Pitt vigorously supported the High Bailiff, though his conduct was so clearly illegal, that, in an action brought against him for it by Fox, he was cast in £2,000 damages. Lord Stanhope slurs over the case in a single line, insinuating that Pitt was misled by Sir Lloyd Kenyon (i. 225); but Pitt himself was quite lawyer enough to judge of the merits of so clear a case, and his biographer would have done better in confessing Pitt's error than in trying to shift the blame due to it to the shoulders of another.

He had now almost absolute power; and he began to use it with equal energy and wisdom, showing himself greatly in advance of his age in many most important measures. His first care was to re-establish the finances of the kingdom, which the expenses of the American war and a long course of general mismanagement had thrown into great disorder. The funds were unprecedentedly low; the yearly revenue fell short of the expenditure of the country by no less than two millions of money; while the contraband trade was carried on to such an extent that, in some articles—such as tea and spirituous liquors—it was estimated that three-fifths of the whole quantity consumed in the kingdom was imported by smugglers. Pitt brought in a budget of so comprehensive a character that the resolutions which he moved as its foundation, amounted to above a hundred and thirty; proposing a great variety of new taxes, which he distributed in such a manner as to be burdensome to no class of the population, while at the same time he reduced the duty on those commodities which had been chiefly dealt in by the smuggler. It was necessary to contract a loan for the purpose of funding some portion of the large floating debt, which had risen to £14,000,000. Here, too, he corrected the evil example set by his predecessors, accepting the lowest tenders, and not retaining a farthing of the loan for distribution among his own supporters. A still greater monument of his wisdom was a measure which he introduced for placing the commerce and manufactures of Ireland on a footing of equality with those of England. As a matter of course it was opposed by Fox, though without success; but in the Irish House of Commons it was for a time defeated through the jealousy or selfishness which actuated a large proportion of the Irish politicians.

The speeches with which he introduced these comprehensive measures were of the very highest order of eloquence; while even Fox allowed that he deserved infinite credit for the courage with which he grappled with the difficulties of the exchequer. His success in dealing with these most intricate questions is the more remarkable, if we recollect that the principles of political economy were at that time almost a novelty; that till this time no Minister had ever paid the least attention to them; and that, with the exception of Burke, there was not probably a single member of the House to which he propounded them, who had the least conception of either their scope or their importance; and yet that he now, when scarcely five and twenty years old, had mastered them, reduced them to practice in the management of the finances of the nation, and, by the eloquence with which he explained them, and the methodical skill with which he carried them out, won for them the general assent of the community, and laid the foundation for their gradually increasing application to every branch of our trade.

The only instance in which his financial system has been discredited by the experience of subsequent years was the Sinking Fund, which the increased prosperity of the country, in consequence of the wisdom of his other measures, encouraged him to establish. From the first he had urged the importance of always keeping in view the eventual redemption of every loan contracted; and with that view, he had correctly pointed out the advantage of borrowing at a

\* In April, 1784 (Cunningham's Ed. viii. 471), Walpole tells his correspondent, "there are as warm partisans for Mr. Fox or Mr. Pitt at Versailles or at Amsterdam as at Westminster;" but it is among many other singular proofs of the haste and carelessness with which Lord Stanhope has put together these volumes, that he scarcely ever refers to Walpole's letters in them, though they contain many interesting notices of the early days of Pitt's parliamentary career; and though the frequency of his quotations from them in his history proves that he does not undervalue Walpole as an authority. Yet, while he thus neglects them, he inserts letters from Lord Macaulay, which, even if they might be suitably inserted in an appendix, have clearly no right whatever to a place in the text, the introduction of which, like the other frequent references to Lord Macaulay's opinions and sayings, seems to have no object but to gain a sort of credit—a second-hand credit for Lord Stanhope, by showing him to have been an intimate acquaintance of so brilliant a writer; a circumstance which, unless Lord Macaulay's power of combination and liveliness of description had been contagious, which they clearly were not, can be of no interest to the readers of the work before us.

\* This had been predicted by Lord Mahon. "What am I to do, said Pitt, if they stop the supplies? They will not stop them, said Mahon; it is the very thing which they will not venture to do."—"Wilberforce's Life," i. 40.



high rate of interest rather than at a low rate. But when he proceeded to establish a rule that a certain sum should be annually devoted to the redemption of the National Debt, even when that sum actually required to be borrowed for the purpose of being so employed, he was allowing himself to be misled by a theory of which one would have thought a very brief examination sufficient to show the fallacy, which broke down under the long-continued pressure of the continental war, and which was abandoned with the unanimous consent of all parties when the return of peace permitted a calm review of our situation and our prospects. In one great measure which he carried out, he had the singular opportunity of showing himself superior not only to Fox, superiority to whom on a question of political economy was no great triumph; but even to Burke, who, on other occasions, had shown himself both a careful student and a thorough master of its principles. In the treaty of peace concluded between England and France in 1783, it had been stipulated that the commercial intercourse between the two countries should be put on a better footing by subsequent negotiation. For two years no steps were taken to carry this clause into effect; but at the end of 1785 Pitt resumed the design which it had sanctioned, and sent Mr. Eden (afterwards Lord Auckland) to Paris, with full powers to arrange and conclude a commercial treaty. We must not judge of the character of this carefully considered and most beneficial measure by the hasty and one-sided travesty of it which we have seen adopted in recent days, and which, however confidently Pitt's example was referred to by its promoters, resembles it in nothing but the name. We have no space to enter into details; it is enough to say that Pitt's treaty was dictated by the largest and most accurate knowledge of the trade of both countries founded on the most laborious and minute investigation. By the almost total abolition of prohibitory duties, and the substitution of a moderate tariff which the French concerted with us on terms of perfect equality, it opened the markets of each country to the production of the other, thus not only laying the foundations of a trade equally advantageous to both, but having an inevitable tendency to allay the spirit of animosity that had so long subsisted between them. It was not enough for Fox to oppose the treaty in general terms; he condemned it on the special ground of its tendency to diminish the jealousies of former ages, and proclaimed France to be the natural foe of Great Britain and enmity to France a fundamental principle of sound English policy. It will be serviceable to recollect the doctrine which he thus propounded now, when we come to estimate the value of his attacks on Pitt for engaging in war with France six years later. Burke's judgment, even in its wildest flights, was too sound for such wicked folly as was thus broached by his leader; but with almost equally bad taste he sought to disparage the details of the measure, and the various steps of the negotiation by which it had been effected. Fortunately, their arguments had no weight with Parliament, which affirmed the principle of the treaty by a large majority; and they have had even less influence with posterity, which has been from time to time continually carrying out and expanding the principles which it contained; while even Fox's biographer, though ashamed to mention the language in which that statesman opposed it, pronounces the treaty itself "one of the most beneficial measures in its scope and intent which any Minister ever proposed."

Pitt's exertions in simplifying our own system by the consolidation of the Customs, Excise, and Stamp Duties, were equally beneficial, and even more laborious; and the gratitude of the public in general, who, after many years of depression and difficulty, saw the trade of the country increasing, its manufactures flourishing, its exchequer full, and its debt diminishing, rewarded him with a degree of popularity which no previous Minister in our annals had ever enjoyed.

The most doubtful passage in this part of Pitt's career, his vote in favour of the impeachment of Warren Hastings, is passed over by Lord Stanhope more lightly than it deserves. The unparalleled eloquence with which Burke, Sheridan, and Fox, brought their charges against the late Governor-General, have caused the impeachment to be more widely and lastingly celebrated than any judicial proceeding which ever took place in any country. The feelings which actuated Burke are evident and not discreditable to him. In an Administration of many years' duration, where, till Hastings himself had established a regular system, the principles of sound government were but little understood by the dominant or the subject nations, there had unquestionably been many actions committed defensible on no principle of justice or humanity. The slightest violation of either was at all times sufficient to rouse Burke's feelings of indignation, and (as when his feelings were excited, he rarely looked at two sides of a question) to make him cast aside all recollection of the virtues and services by which such acts of injustice or severity were counterbalanced. It is doing but little injustice to Fox and Sheridan to believe that they were mainly influenced by a desire to embarrass the Ministry, who were supposed to have taken Hastings under their protection. But Pitt, by his position as Minister, was bound to take a more statesmanlike view of the question. Clive had been a conqueror and viceroy, in comparison with whom Pizarro was a pettifogger, and Cortez himself little better than a successful freebooter. Yet Clive's glories, great as they were, paled by the side of the achievements of Hastings. It became the Prime Minister, in judging of the treatment due to such a man, to weigh his services against the errors imputed to him, not forgetting that even the worst of them had been dictated by no personal interest, by no motive but that of serving to the utmost his country and the Company whose servant he was. In fact, Pitt had done so when considering the case of the Rohilla war, the strongest of all the charges brought against Hastings, and enforced by Burke himself. So that people had a right to be astonished when, on the question of the fine wrung from Cheyte Singh, Pitt, after deciding that Hastings was justified in imposing some fine, voted also that the amount of the fine was so excessive as to deserve impeachment. Lord Stanhope copies Mr. Massey in quoting Dundas's letter to Cornwallis in praise of his own and Pitt's fairness, as a complete explanation and justification of this vote, but passes over the notorious fact that Dundas condemned himself by the unguarded admission that, now that the Opposition had done their (the Ministers') business by keeping Hastings out of the Board of Control, they did not care what became of him. It is always a most difficult task to assign actions to their real motives, but our belief is that Pitt, whose attention had hitherto been fully occupied by the arrangement of our domestic finance, trusted very much to Dundas for the investigation of Indian affairs; and that Dundas, who had moved the vote of censure on Hastings in 1792, and who was jealous of his expected influence with the King in Indian matters, swayed his principal unduly in this instance.

Beneficial and popular as Pitt's administration was, it was nearly cut short in 1788 by the sudden derangement of the King. It is not worth while now to dilate on a topic of so temporary an interest. The discussions were conducted with unusual vehemence on both sides. Pitt went rather beyond the feeling of the nation and common sense, when he affirmed that the Prince of Wales had no more right to the Regency than any other individual; but this slip of his was lost amid the unconstitutional doctrines of the Prince's absolute right advanced by Fox, who fancied that the opportunity of securing lasting power to himself, which

had been wrested from him in 1784, was now restored to him; joined to the intemperance of Burke, who charged Pitt with setting up himself as a rival candidate to the Prince. Happily for the country, before the discussions were terminated the king recovered, and Pitt, who had made all his preparations for returning to the profession of the law, was only strengthened in his position by the displeasure which the violence of his adversaries had excited in the breasts of both King and people.

At the beginning of the year 1789, Pitt, with the generality of European statesmen, looked on peace as established on a secure footing. He was, above all things, by temperament as well as by his sense of what was needed for the continued welfare of Britain, a peace minister; and the only instance in which he had apparently departed for a moment from that character—his espousal of the side of the Stadtholder in the disorders which, in 1787, broke out in Holland—was, in fact, an exemplification of the steadiness of his resolution to preserve eventual peace: since he saw clearly, that if the independence of Holland were once sacrificed to France, the latter power would acquire a predominance which could not but be dangerous to the tranquillity of the world. But the middle of the year was scarcely passed when the French Revolution broke out. For a moment, it seemed likely in one way to increase Pitt's power by dividing the ranks of the Opposition, which now began to split into two sections; one led by Burke, who, with a foresight in which he stood alone, denounced every principle of the leaders of the Revolution, and predicted the evils which must inevitably ensue from them, proceeding also to foretell the utter ruin of France in words which, it may be, nothing but the genius of Buonaparte prevented from being equally verified; the other led by Fox, who, with equal vehemence, but less sagacity, was never weary of sounding the praises of the revolution and its authors. But in the end, by realizing Burke's prophecies of plunging Europe into war, it dissipated all Pitt's dreams of further progress in financial reform and extension of our peaceful resources; and has lowered his reputation in the estimation of those who see, or profess to see, in the astonishing series of victories with which, after years of great misery and disgrace, the vast talents of one man crowned the French arms, a proof of great mistakes in his policy and of a general shallowness of views, and inability to comprehend the real character of the crisis which had come upon the world.

Pitt's own views of the state of French affairs agreed with those of Burke, in foreseeing great misery to the country as the immediate consequence of the revolution, but differed from them inasmuch as he predicted that the present convulsions must ultimately terminate in a return to general harmony and order, which would probably render her as formidable as ever. In the meantime he made no demonstration which could provoke the new leaders of the French to war, but continued his salutary endeavours to husband and expand the resources of the country so as to enable her to bear the shock when it should come. At the same time he directed increased attention to foreign politics, and lost no opportunity of showing his resolution to maintain our dignity abroad, and to preserve the balance of power. With a stern vigour, in spite of the unpatriotic opposition of Fox and his party, he repressed the insolence of Spain in America, and he would gladly have interposed with equal effect to check the aggressions of Russia in the east of Europe, had he not, when his plans were met by the same opposition, thought it more consistent with his duty, under the peculiar circumstances of the case, to abandon his projects than to reveal all the motives which had induced him to form them.

The most remarkable instances of the effect which the French revolution produced on his policy, while peace was still maintained, was afforded by his conduct on the motions for the repeal of the Test Acts, and for Parliamentary reform, both of which he now opposed, still thinking them objects which, in the abstract, were desirable, but which the French example, and the possible contagion of French principles, made inexpedient and dangerous at the moment.

He was still a poor man. When in 1788 he seemed on the point of being ejected from office by the new Regent, the great merchants of London had raised a subscription of £100,000, by the offer of which they proposed to testify their sense of the inestimable benefits his commercial and financial measures had conferred on the country; but he had announced to his friends his intention to refuse the offer, and the King's recovery prevented it from being made. But in August, 1792, Lord Guildford, better known by his earlier title of Lord North, died, and the King at once conferred his office of Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports on Pitt. He had more than once offered him the Garter, which, however, he had each time been permitted to decline. This post the King correctly judged to be of more importance to his welfare than any empty honour, and it is equally honourable to the Minister's disinterestedness and to the sovereign's appreciation of it that George III. thought it necessary to declare that he should be seriously offended if this office were refused.

At last, at the beginning of 1793, the monsters in whose hands the chief power in France now resided murdered their king, and declared war against Great Britain. Pitt had for some time foreseen that this event was impending, and with judicious foresight had been preparing to meet it, taking steps at the end of the preceding year to increase our forces both by land and sea, calling out the militia, and even adopting some measures which must have been most distasteful to him as a financier, such as a prohibition of the exportation of corn. They were, however, so evidently necessary that he was supported in them not only by his own adherents, but by a very large section of the Opposition, known chiefly as the friends of the Duke of Portland, who had gradually become more and more convinced of the superior soundness of Burke's judgment of the Revolution to that of the opinions propounded by Fox. It was not to be wondered at; for Fox was every day becoming more extreme in his views, and more violent in the conduct and language with which he supported them. He had indeed the prudence to avoid joining the association calling itself "The Friends of the People." But he harangued the House of Commons in its defence with such vehemence that the king truly said he might just as well have been a member of it. And he condemned many of Pitt's measures as only to be justified by "actual insurrection within the realm." The more critical the aspect of affairs became the more violent also became his conduct, till its manifest unreasonableness removed all the disinclination which the Duke of Portland's party had long felt to forsake his guidance, and in the middle of 1794 they formally coalesced with Pitt's ministry. Negotiations for such a junction of parties had been set on foot in 1792. At that time they were intended to include Fox, for Pitt was above all jealousy, and only desirous to secure the application of his great talents to the service of his country. But the negotiations were frustrated by Fox's jealousy of Pitt. It is vain for Lord John Russell to endeavour to shift the blame on Lord Fitzwilliam; Lord Malmesbury, who had a personal knowledge of all that took place, records his own and Lord Loughborough's opinion of Fox's impracticable temper. He insisted on Pitt's giving up the Treasury, and told Lord Loughborough "that although it should be the united opinion of all his friends that he ought to come into office, leaving Pitt in the post he then filled, he still should maintain his own." What could not then be done with him was now done without him; and the Ministry was greatly strengthened, not only in Parliament, but also in the opinion of the

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nation, who saw with great pleasure the accession of men like Windham and Lord Spencer to the Cabinet.

The war in which we were thus engaged was not very vigorously or successfully conducted. It would seem that Pitt failed at first to perceive the extent to which the enthusiasm and insatiable ambition of the French republicans rendered the character of this war different from that of any other which Europe had yet seen; and he trusted but little to our own armies, and very much to subsidies to our German allies, whose system of dawdling and jobbery was but ill calculated to encounter armies led by generals, whose military talents and rapidity of action were stimulated by the knowledge that not only failure, but the slightest intermission of victory, brought the axe of the guillotine on their necks. Our navy, indeed, was triumphant; but the only land force which we sent to the continent, that which was confided to the command of the Duke of York, returned after a brief campaign without having reaped either advantage or credit; and if it is even now referred to with interest by an English historian, it is only as having been the scene of the first development of the genius that subsequently saved Europe, of the great military talent and virtues of Arthur Wellesley.

After three years of warfare, Pitt, always anxious for the restoration of peace, thought he saw an opening for negotiation, and sent Lord Malmesbury, the ablest of our diplomatists, to Paris; but it was soon found that the French directory would make no concession for such an object, and nothing was left for us but to continue the war. With the failure of Lord Malmesbury's negotiations Lord Stanhope's present volumes end. In our review of them, we have postponed till the appearance of the remainder of the work all mention of Pitt's noble co-operation with Wilberforce for the abolition of the slave trade, of his great measures for the amelioration of the condition of Ireland, as well as of many other topics, which our poverty of space rather than our inclination has compelled us to pass over. We have already seen enough of Pitt's career to convince us that when Lady Chatham placed the abilities of her husband before those of her son, she was combining with her conjugal duty an obedience to that instinct which is said generally to lead a woman to espouse the weaker side in argument. But our complete estimate of his genius and character we must defer till Lord Stanhope gives us the opportunity of returning to the subject.

#### LEGENDARY AND ROMANTIC BALLADS OF SCOTLAND.\*

THERE have been many collections of ancient Scottish poetry published, and each has been well received by the public. The present volume, however, may fairly claim a preference over all those by which it had been preceded; for it is carefully and scrupulously edited by one who has established his fame as the most popular of living ballad writers—a genuine poet—who brings to the accomplishment of the task he has undertaken all his own refined taste in verse composition, and, what is of still more importance in such an enterprise, the capability of distinguishing between the true and the false, the genuine antique and the modern imitation of what is ancient. The intrinsic value of the "legendary" ballad consists less in the smoothness of its versification than in its indubitable antiquity; and to be able to determine the latter point requires the taste of a poet, combined with the knowledge of a scholar who has sedulously devoted himself to a study of old-world phrases, sentiments, thoughts, and modes of expression.

When it was determined to present to the world a genuine edition of the veritable "Legendary and Romantic Ballads of Scotland," Dr. Charles Mackay was properly selected to give to such a collection the authenticity and responsibility of his name. There could be no doubt of the value of the coin, and the purity of the metal of which it was composed, when his name and reputation were stamped upon it. He was sure to identify his own name with no literary composition but what he, in his conscience, believed to be good and true; so that all the pieces of poetry which he recognized as "ancient," might, without hesitation, be accepted as worthy of the character he had assigned to them. The principle upon which Dr. Mackay has acted is thus candidly, and (considering the high names to which he refers) courageously set forth by him:—

"The editor believes that the selection, limited as it is, will be found to contain an adequate proportion of the best and most popular of these rude and homely, but hearty and touching lyrics; not as they may have been from time to time 'improved' by Percy, Scott, Hogg, and others, sometimes with more taste than reverence, and often without either; but as they come from the mouths of the early singers themselves, long before they were committed to the press. The temptation to 'amend' such compositions where the rhythm halts, or the rhyme does not jingle, and where, as in many instances, the correct reading is hopelessly lost, is great and trying to the self-control of most editors; but in this respect Motherwell set an example of fidelity, which the editor of the present volume has scrupulously followed. . . . Wherever in any ballad, not included in Motherwell's original collection, the editor has seen reason to believe that Sir Walter Scott, or an inferior hand to his, has tampered with the original version, he has not scrupled to state his opinion, agreeing fully with his predecessor, 'that such a mode of editing ancient ballads is highly objectionable.'"

We have, then, a collection of poems, which are to be regarded as alike valuable and interesting, because of their indubitable genuineness and well-tested antiquity. But another important consideration in connection with such compositions is this—are their intrinsic merits such as to entitle them to the care and attention bestowed upon them?

Those best acquainted with literature are aware that the most ancient form in which history has appeared is in the guise of "the ballad." The two works which made the most noise in the middle ages, and through the study of which the manners of the age were formed, and some of its most important events directly influenced, were the so-called "Turpin's History" of Charlemagne, and Geoffrey of Monmouth's "History of the Britons;" and yet both of these were mere prose compilations from ancient and popular ballads—precisely of the same character as the greater portion of the present volume. Bearing these facts in mind, we have examined "The Legendary and Romantic Ballads of Scotland," and can recommend their perusal as compositions calculated to charm the reader by their simplicity and vigour; attractive for the power with which various incidents are described, as well as for the pathos that thrills through many striking passages.

Most of the pieces in this volume are purely Scotch—in dialect, in personages, in scenery, and, it might be said, in "the morality" they inculcate; that morality being more in accordance with the times that have passed away, than in unison with our own more modern and straight-laced notions of propriety. There are, however, along with these "Legendary and Romantic Ballads of Scotland," one, at least, that has no connection with Scotland, but was imported amongst its ancient ballads at a time when Scotland was remarkable for its strict adherence not only to the tenets, but the legends of the Roman Catholic Church. The ballad entitled "Sir Hugh, or the Jew's Daughter" is undoubtedly as much an ancient "Irish" as it is a "Scotch" ballad; and, as such, it is to be heard to this day recited by the Irish peasantry; but the version is somewhat different from that published by Dr. Mackay. We believe it might be added, that the same legend is more English than Irish or Scotch, and still more "Roman" than

British in any respect. The fact, or supposed fact, on which "the ballad," or "legend," is based, will be found in the "Acta Sanctorum" of the Bollandists.

The editing of such a volume as this, is the performance of a task involving no small expenditure of time, thought, and trouble. It is contributing to the general store of knowledge, and aiding the many in becoming acquainted with what is the veritable and the true—the manners of times that have for ever passed away, the habits of thought and modes of expression of generations that have disappeared from the face of the earth. High praise is due to the man who performs such tasks as these with scrupulous fidelity, and he most rightfully may claim to hold a high place amid those who are recognized as being the most useful workers of the day; for

"He who writes a book  
Brimful of noble thoughts, doth he not serve?  
And he who sings a song which elevates  
The poor man's heart, and makes it throb with joy,  
Hath he done nothing? He who carves a stone  
Into immortal beauty, is not he  
As great and noble as the man who talks  
On Opposition benches half the night?  
Or on the Treasury benches drones and prates  
About his Budget, and his Income Tax,  
And his five-farthings in the pound of tea?"

To the lover of poetry, the admirer of antiquity, the student of history, and to the mere idler who reads for amusement and seeks after excitement, this volume of "Legendary and Romantic Ballads of Scotland" must be equally welcome.

#### LIFE AND TIMES OF CARDINAL JULIAN.\*

THE biography of "a cardinal" composed by "a rector and vicar of the English Established Church" cannot fail to be regarded as something more extraordinary than a mere "literary curiosity." The reasons, however, that have induced the Rev. Mr. Jenkins to undertake the task he has so well performed, are easily explained. Cardinal Julian was either contemporary with, or a prominent actor in, scenes which have always, from the time of their occurrence to the present day, excited the deepest emotion and heartfelt sympathy in this country. The Council of Constance, the condemnation of John Huss, the religious wars of the Bohemians, and their consequences, leading, as they did, to the grand climax of "the Reformation" of the sixteenth century, are themes familiar to the English mind; and any honest historical work, the result of careful investigation, which aids in shedding a new light upon them, cannot fail to be well received.

The book of the Rev. R. C. Jenkins is entitled to a hearty welcome. He has thoroughly studied his subject; he has sought for information from all sides; and whilst his sympathies are with "the reformers"—"the Hussites," he has never shrunk from denouncing the crimes and cruelties they committed, and which disgraced the principles to which they were attached. As a proof that he has something new to tell the public we would point to the following paragraph, in which he shows that a very erroneous notion generally prevails in this country as to a close connection between the Bohemian "Hussites" and the English "Wiclifites." He refers (p. 101) to the "Cardinal Beaufort," immortalized by Shakspeare, as publishing the first crusade against the Hussites, in Winchester, in 1427; and he shows in 1431 (p. 119) that upon the other side, and opposed to the Church of Rome and the Emperor, was an English Hussite, Peter Payne. Fixing attention upon these facts, he, at the same time, demonstrates it is a mistake to suppose that the teaching of Huss was traceable to the writings of Wiclif. We regard the following passage as alike interesting and important:—

"For the origin of the doctrinal views which were advocated with such irresistible power and signal success by Huss and Jerome of Prague, in the kingdom of Bohemia, we must go far beyond the days of Wiclif and the early English Reformers, between whom and the followers of Huss the connection was much less real and influential than is generally supposed. The friends of the Church of Rome were eager and skilful in their endeavours to connect the rising rebellion against its authority with a heresy which had been already so frequently condemned; and the writers on the other side have been equally anxious to establish the relationship, in order to give to the Reformation the character of an unbroken protest against the Roman Church. The Council of Constance readily adopted this connection of the two heresies, although Huss himself declared on his examination that he had not read any of the works of Wiclif until about twelve years previously (i. e. 1403), and these only his philosophical writings, his works on theology not having then found their way into Bohemia. Now, the public preaching of Huss, in the chapel of Bethlehem, began in 1400, and could not, therefore, have received its inspirations from the writings of Wiclif. His preaching, conducted in the Bohemian language, and adapted to the popular feeling, embodied and expressed that strong religious sentiment of the Slavonian nations which, from the day of their conversion in the ninth century, had separated them in character and sympathies from the scholastic teaching of the Church of Rome. The theology of the Bohemian Church was connected as inseparably with the philosophy of the Realists as that of Rome was, at this period, with the philosophy of the Nominalists; and the causes of the hostility of the leading members of the Council to the unfortunate Huss are to be traced rather to the fact that he represented the realist views of the University of Prague in opposition to the nominalism of Gerson, D'Ailly, and the University of Paris, than to the religious tenets which he had advanced, and which only, inasmuch as they were based on a heretical philosophy, became in their view heretical."

The rev. author thus fixes the attention of his readers upon a fact hitherto much misunderstood, and hence generally misrepresented. He also dilates upon the religious causes which led to the revolt of the Bohemians, the desperate wars in which they engaged, as well as the hideous crimes and barbarities committed; but he has not, we think, put as prominently forward as it deserves; the intensely national and ardent anti-German feeling which imparted to the Bohemian revolt not only a considerable portion of its energy, but also increased the vehemence of the cruelty with which it was waged, and so dishonoured "the religious principle" with which it was connected.

"Summus utrinque  
Inde furor vulgo, quod Numina vicinorum  
Odit uterque locus; cum solos credat habendos  
Esse Deos, quod ipse colit."

From the commencement of the Bohemian revolt, the insurgents against the Emperor and the Church of Rome were divided into two parties. The first was influenced by its leader, John de Rokyczana, afterwards Archbishop of Prague, and the other under the command of the celebrated warrior, John Ziaska de Trocznow. Peace might have been made with the first, on condition of restoring "the cup to the laity," of which they had been deprived by the Council of Constance; but the demands of the other party—the genuine Hussites—went much further, for they "would accept nothing short of a free and full preaching of the word of God, a secularization of the monastic orders and property, the public punishment of all open crimes and scandals, in addition to the concession of the cup to the laity." But behind these religious parties, events served to show there was another—the Slavonian party. There was, in fact, in the fifteenth century that self-same predominating sentiment which has come so prominently before the world in our own day, and which now bears the general designation of

\* The Legendary and Romantic Ballads of Scotland. Edited by Charles Mackay, author of "Egeria," "The Lump of Gold," &c. London: Griffin, Bohn, & Co., Stationers' Hall-court, 1861.

\* The Last Crusader; or, the Life and Times of Cardinal Julian, of the House of Cesarini. A Historical Sketch. By Robert C. Jenkins, M.A., Trin. Coll., Cambridge, Rector and Vicar of Lyminge. London: Richard Bentley, New Burlington-street, Publisher in Ordinary to Her Majesty. 1861.



"nationality." The world now knows by experience that where a spirit of nationality pervades the entire mass of a population, and impels a people to shake from them the yoke of a foreign domination, they may achieve their independence by open, manly, and honourable warfare. It was in this mode the United States secured their independence of the English crown; it was thus, too, the Southern States of America freed themselves from the dominion of the Spaniards; in such manner also the kingdom of Italy has shaken itself free of the Austrian chains. The world now also knows, by experience, that when the spirit of nationality hides itself under the cloak of conscientious scruples on points of religion, it proves its hypocrisy by its cruelty. Such was the case in the Netherlands, when the Dutch expelled the satellites of Philip, and when the barbarisms of Alba were not only imitated but surpassed in atrocity and malignity by the favourites of the House of Orange, when, to use the words of the honest historian, Wagenaar, "deeds of inhuman tortures were perpetrated, and punishments and sufferings inflicted upon persons totally innocent of crime, and a course of proceeding adopted which no reasons of state nor policy can possibly palliate." \* The latest instance of a religious or fanatical sentiment co-operating with a struggle for national independence is to be found in that insurrection in which the English were such bitter sufferers, and that will be ever remembered as "the Sepoy Rebellion of 1857."

The circumstances of the Hussite war served to develop the Slavonian element that underlay it from the first, and although our author fails to bring it prominently forward, yet it could not altogether escape one who was diligent and indefatigable in his researches. Two passages will suffice to show this:—

"The great Bohemian movement he (Cardinal Julian) naturally regarded as the most menacing of all the elements of confusion that were now threatening Europe. Its scene was the very nearest to the point of danger. Its successes were opening a path of conquest to the enemies of the Church, at a point where the Church of Rome had ever been weakest, the countries of the great Slavonian family. Eastern in their origin and sympathies, and wavering in their allegiance to the Papacy since the day of their conversion by the Eastern missionaries, and their invitation on the part of the great patriarch, Photius, to resist the tyrannical pretensions and novel doctrines of the Bishops of Rome" (p. 82).

"The sad fate of the town of Lauban, in Lusatia, as it has been, more circumstantially described than many others, may enable the readers to estimate the misery and ruin which followed the successes of these desperate marauders through all their career. That town forms one of the six municipalities of the margravate of Upper Lusatia, and the Taborites, having carried their work of plunder and massacre through the neighbouring country of Silesia, attacked it on the 15th May, 1427, under the command of Diedrich von Klux, a Lusatian nobleman, a leadership which shows that the Bohemian disaffection had spread among the higher classes of Lusatia also, and formed part of a general Slavonian movement against the German population" (p. 98, 99).

The religious war of the fifteenth century, in which "the blessed banner" was borne by Cardinal Julian, was also a war of races—of Teuton against Slave, and the hatred as well as horror of the Germans towards the countrymen of Huss and the soldiers of Ziska became so inveterate as to be turned into a proverb, to the effect "that there were a hundred devils lodged in the body of every single Bohemian soldier." That war has never ceased. Its embers still retain a smouldering fire, and events at this very moment occurring, both in Hungary and Bohemia, would lead to the conviction that fierce flames are on the point of bursting forth, and again threatening to bring destruction upon the old Germanic empire.

Independent of the interest which belongs to the biography of "Cardinal Julian," as it is now presented to the world by the Rev. R. C. Jenkins, it will be seen that the circumstances of the time at which it is published impart to it additional value. Considering the condition of things not only in Rome, but also in Piedmont and Tuscany, and the demands almost universally made by Roman Catholics in various countries, to the effect, "that priests should attend solely to the altar, that they should refrain from making themselves political partisans, and no longer take upon themselves functions which belong to laymen," a new interest is imparted, and additional importance to be attached to the following abstract (by Mr. Jenkins) of the official reply given by Bohemian insurgents to the letter of Cardinal Julian announcing the new crusade against them, and calling upon them to yield obedience to the Church:—

"The answer," observes our author, "which they transmitted to the Legate, is one which indicates a masterly hand—probably that of Rokycana himself, if not of Peter Payne, the English Hussite. There is a vein of irony running through the opening passage, in which the Bohemians suggest to the Cardinal that he cannot but be aware that many salutary precepts were delivered by the Lord Jesus Christ while upon earth, and that the chiefest among them were these—that the sacrament should be distributed in both kinds, that the word of God should be freely taught, that open and notorious sins, even when done under a pretext of religion, should be punished, and that the administration of public affairs should be taken out of the hands of the clergy. They charge the Roman Church with having deserted the principles of Christianity, and the clergy with having implicated themselves in secular matters, and neglected their religious duties" (pp. 118, 119).

There is fermenting now, as there was in the times of Cardinal Julian, a great desire amongst sincere Roman Catholics for "reform" in the organization of their own Church, and that desire may be expressed in five words—"No more priests in politics."

Every page of this valuable biography is full of interest. It is a teacher as to the past, and an instructor as to the present. We regard it as a most valuable contribution to the list of our historical works, and recommend its perusal to all creeds and classes of society.

#### TABLETTE BOOKE OF LADY MARY KEYES.†

This book professes to be a bonâ-fide antique. The orthography of the epoch of Elizabeth is punctiliously adhered to, and carefully republished. The type of the press in ancient times is reproduced, and even the binding is consistent with the mode in which the booksellers sent forth their most choice publications in the early days of the seventeenth century. If we are to repose implicit confidence in the statement of the preface, we are bound to believe that this work was discovered in 1578, amongst the papers of Lady Mary Keyes; but it was not printed until the reign of James I., as it was deemed impolitic that it should appear during the lifetime of Queen Elizabeth. The work now published, we are told, is printed almost verbatim from the original, which was "Imprinted at London, by one Robert Barker, printer to the King's Moste Excellent Majesty.—Anno, 1604."

Admitting this description of the "Booke" to be perfectly accurate, we cannot refrain from quoting a few passages, which smack very strongly of the manner of modern writers. Here, for example, is an account of the behaviour of three noble young ladies wishing to witness the feats of the morris-dancers on the lawn in front of Sion House:—

"Righte happie was we, peeping oute of the leetel ledde-paned, diamond-shaped lattice, our leetel noses squatted to the glasse" (p. 4).

\* "Doeh de onmenscheelyke wreedheid gepleegd, in't pynigen en straffen van luiden, in welken men geene schuld altoos gevonden hadt, is met geene redenen van staat te verschoonen."—Wagenaar, *Vaderlandsche Historie*, b. xxv., s. 10.

† The *Tablette Booke of Ladye Mary Keyes*, own sister to the misfortunate Ladye Jane Dudley; in which will be founde a faithfull Historie of alle the Troubles that did come to them and their Kinsfolke, writt in the yeare of oure Lorde Fiftene Hundred and Seventie-seven. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co., 66, Brook-street, Hanover-square. 1861.

One of the young ladies who had her "little nose squatted to the glass," was the unhappy Lady Jane Grey!

We have next an account of the treatment of a witch, in which is to be found a phrase that is very generally supposed, now-a-days, to be nothing better than unadulterated slang:—

"Soe was she tookt afore the Grande Councille, and questioned verie sharplie by alle the grate bigg wigges, who most sternlie commanded, on perille of the racke, that she should trulie divulge alle she did knowe touchinge the Kinges Deth" (p. 60).

Another passage appears to us to be apocryphal. It appears in a parenthesis in p. 90:—

"Moste luckie it is for me that this my Tablette Booke is not to be redde wile I am in life, else woulde I be feared to speke in such a free Waie of the mother of oure Sovereigne Quene Elizabeth, for tighte-laced is she in respect of her mother's carakter, and alle righte she should be so."

Without venturing an opinion as to the authenticity of the work, we still recommend its perusal as a curious piece of biography, and conveying a very clear and accurate notion of the manners of the times both in the reigns of Edward VI. and Queen Elizabeth.

#### THE MAGAZINES.

IN *Bentley* considerable progress is made this month with Mr. Harrison Ainsworth's powerfully-told historical romance, "The Constable of the Tower." It gives an affecting description of the death-scene of Queen Catherine Parr, the ill-treated wife of the ambitious "Admiral." There is also a telling dramatic interview with Queen Elizabeth, in which the traits of her personal character are rigidly adhered to; and, lastly, there is an account of the intrigues of the younger Seymour against "the Protector," of the betrayal of those schemes by a person who proves himself to be a double traitor; and, finally, there is an interesting picture of the youthful Edward seeking to save one of his uncles from the vengeance of the other. We postpone any further remarks upon this, the best of our "historical romances," until its publication, when we shall have an opportunity of pointing out its merits more in detail. "Crooked Usage," by Mr. Dudley Costello, continues with unabated spirit, and with a knowledge of London rascaldom that is truly wonderful.—In the *Cornhill* Mr. Thackeray proceeds with his story of "Philip." It is brimful of wit, wisdom, and pathos. What a profound knowledge there is of the inner life of man in the few following sentences, where the author defends himself for his portraiture of the hero:—

"Our friend is not Amadis or Sir Charles Grandison; and I don't set him up for a moment as a person to be revered or imitated; but try to draw him faithfully, and as nature made him. As nature made him, so he was. I don't think he tried to improve himself much. Perhaps few people do. They suppose they do; and you read in apologetic memoirs and fond biographies, how this man cured his bad temper, and t'other worked and strove until he grew to be almost faultless. Very well and good, my good people. You can learn a language; you can master a science; I have heard of an old square-toes, of sixty, who learned, by study and intense application, very satisfactorily to dance; but can you, by taking thought, add to your moral stature? Ah me! the doctor who preaches is only taller than most of us by the height of the pulpit; and when he steps down, I daresay he cringes to the duchess, growls at his children, scolds his wife about the dinner. All is vanity, look you; and so the preacher is vanity too."

The tale of "Philip" is crowded with gems like these—it sparkles with such thoughts, and any other person's writings placed in the same number with such a composition appears poor, weak, dull, and obscure. The best article in *Fraser* is entitled "The Sphinx," by Shirley; and in *Fraser* its contributions are almost universally so good that it is very difficult to determine which is the best.—Mr. Sala has, in the present number of *Temple Bar*, confined the scenery of "The Seven Sons of Mammon" to France. His description of the convict system—of the town, the harbour, and the *entourage* of Belleriport, is most graphic and life-like. The tale is told with great spirit, and the interest is never permitted to abate for a single moment. It is a story worth the telling, and therefore a contrast to one by which it is immediately succeeded, "The Burg-keeper's Secret;" whilst of another story introduced into the same number, and entitled "Told at Frascati," we regret to be obliged to remark that it is absolutely discreditible. The *Temple Bar* is intended, as all other magazines are calculated by their contents, to be read by female members of the family into which they are introduced—how then comes the tale, "Told at Frascati," to find a place in a respectable periodical? It is the biography of "a street-walker," coarsely told, and such as no man who respected himself or his children would permit to be read aloud in his presence.—In *Macmillan* there is a very clever article by the editor, upon "Mr. Buckle's Doctrine as to the Scotch and their History." All who have read Mr. Buckle's book will be greatly amused, if not instructed, by the manner in which "the periodical" deals with "the historian."—In *Colburn* there is a very full and interesting account given of the celebrated "Margaret, Duchess of Newcastle," by Sir Nathaniel. As a specimen of the vivacity of the French, and the interest they feel in dramatic representations, we take the following paragraph from an article in *Colburn* entitled, "Paris in its Cynical Aspects:—"

"The manager of one of the theatres of the Boulevards was obliged to double the pay of an actor before he could be induced a second time to confront the shower of projectiles with which he was saluted, on making his appearance on the stage as the representative of Sir Hudson Lowe."

*Blackwood* is particularly good this month. Amongst its attractions may be mentioned, "The Book Hunter," "The Orleans Manifesto," "Barbarisms of Civilization," and "The Demise of the Indian Army." The contribution, however, that will, we believe, be read with most interest, is that entitled "Judicial Puzzles—Spencer Cowper's Case;" for it contains a striking illustration of the attractions and faults of Lord Macaulay as an historian.—The *Dublin University* is a contrast to *Blackwood*. The Irish Tory periodical is always as dull as the Scotch one is lively. There is, however, a single exception to this general remark. The analysis of the evidence given before the Poor Law Committee is vigorously written, and embodies a vast amount of information, which we recommend to the earnest perusal of all who take an interest in the present condition and future prospects of the sister country.—*Good Words*, as usual, contains good things; but we miss from amongst its usual contributions anything from the lively, and always instructive pen of Mr. Hollingshead. His are, at all times, "good words;" and when a periodical has the power of inducing him to write them, he ought not to be permitted to remain, even for a single month, silent.—*The Boys' Own Magazine* contains some pretty articles this month. "The Cold Heart" is a well-told German tale. The only fault to be found with it is that it is not new; but such cannot be said of "The Wreck and the Pirate," "Normans and Saxons," the information given as to "crochet," "The Charades, Enigmas," &c.—The *Englishwoman's Domestic Magazine* presents its readers with a steel plate of the fashions, a group of flowers in Berlin needle-work, a sheet of embroidery and other patterns, whilst many of its stories are illustrated with several well executed wood engravings.—*The Boys' Own Library* is a monthly publication, and a very valuable and interesting publication it is. The number for July has a good, clear map of North America, a coloured engraving referring to a paper on lion-hunting, and several engravings copied from M. Chailu's book, with extracts from the travels of that enterprising natu-

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ralist.—We have received three numbers—for May, June, and July—of a very interesting publication, entitled *Entertaining Things*. It presents its readers with well-written stories, neat engravings, and sound information.—*The Museum* is the title of a new quarterly magazine, published in London by Mr. Stanford of Charing-cross, and in Edinburgh by Mr. James Gordon. The first number was published in April, and the second in July. It is devoted mainly to education, literature, and science. The articles are well and carefully written, and the information on all works especially devoted to the purposes of education are very valuable.—*The New Quarterly* has a very interesting, very instructive, and very learned article, bearing the quaint designation of "The Tale of the Tub," and one from which we would most willingly take a long extract if we could afford space for it.—In the *Westminster Review* there are eight articles: 1, The Life and Letters of Schleiermacher; 2, The Salmon Fisheries of England and Wales; 3, The Critical Theory and Writings of H. Taine; 4, Mr. Mill on Representative Government; 5, The Countess of Albany; 6, Equatorial Africa and its Inhabitants; 7, Mr. Buckle's "History of Civilization in England;" 8, Christian Creeds and their Defenders. The article on contemporary literature is characterized with the impartiality which renders peculiarly valuable all the opinions expressed by the *Westminster* on literary subjects.

#### MISCELLANEOUS NOTICES.

*Orley Farm*. By Anthony Trollope. With illustrations by J. E. Millais. London: Chapman & Hall, 193, Piccadilly. The fifth part of this clever and amusing tale is now published; and introduces, for the first time, the real heroine of the book—a most charming character, belonging to a perfect specimen of a true English family. The difficulties about "Orley Farm" increase, and they are considerably aggravated by the rash conduct of "the widow's" son, who places himself in the power of the rich attorney, who, for the purpose of revenge, is seeking to ruin him. The conference of "Law Reformers" at Birmingham is described with equal power and humour, and yet with no unkindly feeling towards the great object for which they have assembled together.

*Adrift; or, the Rock in the South Atlantic*. A faithful narrative, written from the Diary of Harper Atherton, surgeon. Edited by Frank Fowler. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co., 66, Brook-street, Hanover-square. This is a sea story, giving an account of a mutiny, of a ship on fire, of crew and passengers exposed to a storm in the Atlantic in two open boats, of the arrival on a desolate island, and of a final rescue by one of her Majesty's ships of war. Since the publication of "Robinson Crusoe," there has not been written a story more life-like, and so true to nature in the accuracy and minuteness of all its details, and in the portraiture of seemingly true personages, than this tale of "Adrift." Amongst the characters which are described and happily contrasted with each other, are the honest, bluff, stout merchant sea-captain, and his first-mate, an accomplished villain, a pirate, and the degraded scion of a noble family. With these may be mentioned the bereaved widow, and courageous mother, Mrs. Stebbing, as contrasted with the gentle and noble-spirited consumptive maiden, whose last act is to forgive and pray for the wretch who had caused the premature death of her sister. An Oxford "fast" man is also well placed in juxtaposition with a light-hearted sailor, whose delight is to chaunt forth a Wesleyan hymn in as cheery a voice as if he were singing one of Dibdin's sea-songs. "Adrift" is an exciting tale, so well told that it reads like a reality.

BOOKS RECEIVED.—*The Right to publish Official Documents*.—Proceedings in the Case of Popham v. Pickburn in the Court of Exchequer, Westminster, on May 30th, and June 6th, 1861. London: Pickburn, 35, Rosoman-street.—*Another Gospel Examined*; or, a popular Criticism of each of the seven "Essays and Reviews." London: W. Walker & Co., 196, Strand.—*The Christian Spectator* for July, 1861. London: Yates & Alexander, 6, Horseshoe-court, Ludgate-hill, E.C.; Edinburgh: A. & C. Black.—*The Baptist Magazine*, Fifth Series, No. 55. London: Pentress & Co., 4, Ave Maria-lane.—*Meliora*, a Quarterly Review of Social Science, in its Ethical, Economical, Political, and Ameliorative Aspects, No. 14, July. London: S. W. Partridge, 9, Paternoster-row.—*The Help of Women in English Parishes*. By the writer of the article "Deaconesses," in the *Quarterly Review*. London: John Murray, Albemarle-street.—*Biblical Interpretations*. Theological Tracts for the Times. London: Henry James Tresidder, 17, Ave Maria-lane, Paternoster-row.—*Tracts for Priests and People*. No. III. The Atonement as a Fact and a Theory, by the Rev. Francis Garden, Sub-dean of her Majesty's Chapel Royal. No. IV. The Signs of the Kingdom of Heaven; an Appeal to Scripture on the question of Miracles. By the Rev. John L. Davies, M.A., Rector of Christ Church, Marylebone. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co.; and 23, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden, London.

#### LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THE advocates for the authenticity of the portrait of Shakespeare, recently discovered at Stratford, as a contemporary work of art, are so indignant at the want of faith exhibited by ourselves and the *Athenæum*, that they inundate us with communications on the subject in the local papers, and even attack us in no gentle terms in privately-printed letters. Our opinions were expressed so openly at the time of the discovery, it is unnecessary to recapitulate our arguments. While giving all credit to the honesty and candour of the discoverer, we see no reason whatever to change our first decision, that the portrait unquestionably belongs to the last century; a decision which, we are confident, will be confirmed by all those who are really conversant with the characteristics of genuine portraits of the Elizabethan period.

In the "Literary Intelligence" of last week, by mistake we announced the second of the fifth "Tract for Priests and People," to be written by the Rev. F. D. Maurice. The second tract will be "On the Message of the Church," by the Rev. M. Langley.

It is with the greatest regret that we have to record the death of that true-born poet, Mrs. Elizabeth Barrett Browning, which event occurred at the end of last week, at Florence.

Mr. Ladd is about to publish a "Treatise on the Improved Induction Coil," giving an account of the various phenomena and of the latest experiments in induced electricity, by H. M. Noad.

The first volume of "The Chinese Classics," with an English translation and copious notes, has just been issued from the printing-office of the London Mission, Hong-Kong. The work is the unassisted production of the Rev. James Legge, D.D.

The "London" season so nearly at an end, and the season "abroad" so nearly approaching, the natural question is (to use the title of a work lately published), "Where shall we go?" With this view, Messrs. Longman have ready no less than

eleven works suitable for the Swiss tourist. We do not suppose that all the eleven books are absolutely necessary for the guidance of the tourist, but the traveller among the Swiss mountains would do well to consult Messrs. Longman's list of travels in that particular country.

Dr. Wynter's "Curiosities of Civilization" has reached a fourth edition. The publication of Mr. Charles Boner's work, entitled "Forest Creatures," and the Rev. Leslie Stephen's translation of Baron Von Berlepsch's "Pictures of Life and Nature in the Alps," has been postponed by the publishers, Messrs. Longman, till the autumn.

The Rev. H. Macmillan's book on "Foot-notes from the Page of Nature; or, first Forms of Vegetation," will be published immediately by Messrs. Macmillan and Co.

Messrs. Longman and Co. will publish during the present month "The Oxonian in Iceland; or, notes of travel in that island in the summer of 1860, over ground not visited by any English traveller for fifty years; with glances at Icelandic folk-lore and Sagas. By the Rev. Frederick Metcalfe." This work will be illustrated.

Messrs. Macmillan have in the press a "Life of the celebrated Count Cavour," by Mr. Edward Dicey, the author of "Rome in 1860." Messrs. Macmillan will also publish immediately, "The Golden Treasury," a collection of the best songs and lyrical poems in the English language, selected and arranged with notes by Mr. F. T. Palgrave.

Messrs. Longman are preparing for publication "Twenty-four Views of the Vegetation of the Coasts and Islands of the Pacific," with explanatory descriptions, taken during the exploring voyage of the Russian Corvette *Senjavin*, under the command of Admiral Lüthe, in the years 1827, '28, and '29. By F. H. Kittlitz; translated from the German, and edited by Berthold Seemann.

"Glencraggan; or, a Highland Home in Cantire," by Cuthbert Bede, is published this day, by Messrs. Longman.

Mr. Folkestone Williams' novel, "The Maids of Honour," has been published in a cheap form by Messrs. Kent and Co.

Amongst the most recent foreign publications, may be mentioned a work from the pen of the celebrated French financier, M. Mirès, entitled, "Ma Vie et mes Affaires; à mes Juges." It is a defence, by means of figures, facts, and arguments.

During the present month Messrs. Chapman and Hall will publish a second edition of Mr. Chauncey Hare Townshend's poem, "The Three Gates."

Messrs. Blackwood have in the press "The Three Barriers, being Notes on Darwin's Origin of Species."

Messrs. Longman have just issued a fourth edition of "Projectile Weapons of War, and Explosive Compounds," by J. Scoffern.

Lady Theresa Lewis's clever novel, "The Semi-Attached Couple," is about to form the new volume of Bentley's Standard Novels.

Lord Bury's pamphlet on the Church Rates, "The only Compromise possible on Church Rates," has reached a second edition.

Professor Max Muller's "Lectures on the Science of Language," delivered at the Royal Institution, will be published next week.

The sale of Archbishop Tenison's Collection of Manuscripts attracted a great number of visitors to Messrs. Sotheby and Wilkinson's rooms last week. From the singular rarity and perfect preservation of many of the manuscripts, many of the lots realised high prices. Lot 74 attracted particular notice—"Prudentii Poetae; liber de Pugna Vitiū et Virtutum (Heroico Carmine) cum Glossis;" manuscript of the 9th or 10th century, upon vellum, written in long lines, with interlineary and marginal readings, and illustrated with 180 curious and highly-spirited drawings in outlines, very minute and expressive, in the finest preservation, bound in Russia, with joints, the original hook preserved by which it had formerly been chained to a wall. This volume is particularly valuable, not only on account of its antiquity, but also for the illustration it affords of early costume. No printed edition of this poem by Prudentius, with woodcuts or engravings, is known to exist. This lot was purchased by Mr. Boone for 260 guineas.

On July 8th Messrs. Sotheby and Wilkinson will sell by auction the select Library of the late M. C. J. Delille, comprising capital modern works in French, Italian, and English literature, together with the copyright and remaining copies of his popular literary productions.

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- |                                                                                                                           |                                                                                                 |
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